

The Nation

VOL. XLI.—NO. 1049.

THURSDAY, AUGUST 6, 1885.

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The Nation.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, AUGUST 6, 1885.

The Week.

JUDGING from the letters we receive, it is not too soon to remind many of our contemporaries in the press, and a great many worthy people among the public, that extravagance of language and behavior are, on solemn occasions, however good the motive which prompts them, rather unseemly; that violent, grotesque, and ingenious modes of expressing sorrow over a death are barbarous, and belong to an earlier civilization than ours; that, in brief,

"Passions are likened best to floods and streams:
The shallow murmur, but the deep are dumb."

The honor paid to General Grant's memory is not in the direct ratio of the "fuss" some people are making about his funeral. What with the newspapers trying to outdo each other in lamentation, and private individuals trying to become conspicuous by theirs, there is danger of his obsequies being turned into a strong resemblance to an Irish "wake," with "keeners," and all other appurtenances.

All this demonstrativeness, too, is singularly out of place as a tribute to one of the most silent, undemonstrative, and simple of men, who could not bear to do anything in a theatrical or sensational way. The greatest honor a great people can pay to a great soldier is to be sober in talk and behavior around his grave. The proposal to change the name of Riverside Drive to "Grant Drive," because his grave is to be at the end of it, is one of those little tributes which, offered to such a man, are simply contemptible from their pettiness, and which usually suggest themselves to persons in a somewhat hysterical state of mind. It would be a great thing for a successful dry-goods man to have a street named after him. As a compliment to a successful soldier or statesman it is like presenting Bismarck with a dozen marked pocket-handkerchiefs as a national tribute. Let us have done with all this childishness. We must remember that it was as true of Grant as Artemus Ward says it was of Washington, that "he never slopped over." Let us all imitate him, at least in this.

Apropos of this, we must protest most earnestly, in the name of the city and State, against Mr. Squire's putting verses of his own composition on the City Hall. The production of verses on any occasion is no part of the duties of a Commissioner of Public Works; and sticking them on the walls of a public building under his control ought to be a misdemeanor, punishable with fine or imprisonment, or both. It is all very well for Mr. Squire to think it is "poetry" to say: "He bore aloft our sword of fire, a world-watched, envied nation, where Victory sang while trembling Kings bespoke our desolation." The fact is that this is nonsensical doggerel and ought to come down. There was no "sword of fire" in the late war: the swords were all steel. Moreover, the world watched, but did not envy us in the least during the conflict; nor were there any "trem-

bling Kings" at that period, "bespeaking desolation." They were bespeaking good dinners and suppers, and military reviews. We may say much the same thing of Mr. Squire's other verse: "No faltering marked the Titan's task, no shrinking from the trial, he faced the foe ere Freedom's hand fell shattered from Time's dial." Freedom's hand, Mr. Squire ought to know, never was on Time's dial, and would never be put there except to set the clock, which it is no part of Freedom's business to do. Time always sets his own clock, Freedom having a separate and distinct sphere of duty. Moreover, no "shattering" is allowed on Time's dial either of hands or anything else. In fact, it is one of the peculiarities of Time that he goes on no matter what happens. It may be very well for Mr. Squire to inflict this wretched stuff upon his family, but to inflict it on the people of a great city is scandalous.

The Boston *Herald* makes the singular suggestion that Mr. Conkling should come home to deliver the funeral oration over General Grant, and supports it by recalling the great ability of the speech in which he proposed him for the third term at Chicago. A more unsuitable person for the purpose, however, could hardly be thought of. That he is capable of delivering an eloquent eulogy on General Grant there is no doubt; but no one who listened to it could forget for one moment that it was largely owing to Mr. Conkling's counsels and inspiration and influence that General Grant's civil administration was so great a failure. It would sound, in fact, to many like a eulogy from Lord North over the remains of George III. When Mr. Conkling, too, nominated General Grant for a third term at Chicago, nobody in or out of the Convention for one moment supposed that he wanted to have him reelected so that he might have an opportunity of correcting his former errors, and showing the country the kind of President he would have made had he not fallen into the hands of evil counsellors. On the contrary, nobody doubted that Mr. Conkling's desire was that he should have a chance of repeating the mistakes which, by 1875, had lost nearly every Northern State to the Republicans in Congress, and, but for successful cheating, would have lost them the Presidency in 1876.

The man of all men in the country, it seems to us, who ought to say the last word at General Grant's grave on behalf of the country is General Sherman. Nobody who is so well gifted as an orator or writer knows so much about General Grant's military career, about the difficulties he had to contend with, and the way in which he overcame them. Nobody can so well describe the kind of demand which the art of war makes on the human faculties. General Sherman, too, knows thoroughly the dangers of politics to a soldier, and he would make no hollow or fallacious attempt to convert General Grant's efforts in that field into fresh titles to fame. In other words, his address would be strictly truthful, and there

is no occasion on which truth is so needed and so appropriate as the funeral of a great soldier. Over the remains of a successful financier or politician, a little lying, and a little flattery not far removed from lying, may pass muster, but it would be almost an insult to the memory of a soldier who has filled the world with the fame of his deeds, to say one word by his grave which either those present or those who were to come after, might question or gainsay.

The Virginia Democrats have nominated Fitzhugh Lee for Governor, and as the Republicans have made John S. Wise their candidate, representatives of two of the oldest and most influential families are arrayed against each other in a State where family influence counts for more than anywhere else in the Union. Both candidates were Confederate officers during the war, Lee having been a dashing cavalry leader, while Wise's youth prevented his obtaining the high rank he would doubtless otherwise have reached. The radical difference between them is that Wise represents a political boss of the most odious type, while Lee has behind him a party which, despite its Bourbonish tendencies, contains the bulk of the character and intelligence of the commonwealth. Mahone has so thoroughly demoralized public sentiment on the debt question that there is now little to choose between the two parties so far as this matter is concerned. There are men in Virginia who would gladly support a movement for honest payment of the whole debt, however hopeless success might at first appear; but unhappily they can get no hearing from either party. The issue, therefore, is practically only whether or not Mahoneism shall be fastened upon the State, and on such an issue there can be no question which side the friends of good politics will favor.

Mr. Solon Thatcher, of Kansas, a member of the South American Commission whose searching investigation of the commercial needs of the Argentine Republic was accomplished in the space of thirty-five hours, reached Washington city *via* London on Tuesday week, and had an interview with the newspaper reporters, taking a firm stand in favor of subsidies. "That," said he, "is the solution of the commercial problem between this country and South America. We must have ships. France, England, and Germany all have lines; Spain has recently subsidized a company, and so has even Italy. Of forty or fifty vessels leaving Buenos Ayres every month, not one carries the American flag. Now, all the South American companies favor direct communication with the United States. They, in the majority of cases, will render pecuniary assistance. Peru and the Argentine Republic, Uruguay, and even Chili said they would give financial aid; Ecuador wants communication, but can give no money, owing to her heavy debt. She will open her coastwise trade, however, to the United States. These countries are in favor of subsidies, and express the opinion that, until they are given, the commercial interests cannot be improved." These are

also the views of Mr. John Roach, who ascribes his failure to the Democrats and the "mendacious free-trade press," who, by defeating subsidies and frightening American merchants, have produced all the trouble.

To Mr. Thatcher and Mr. Roach, and all like-minded statesmen, the free-trade press have this short answer: You have built up a commercial system which ignores and contemns foreign trade. You have piled duties and taxes mountain high on imported articles both manufactured and raw. You have labored to the extent of your ability to discourage commerce, and to put obstacles in the way of the exchange of our products for the products of other countries. Now that your system has broken down of its own weight and rottenness, you go to the public treasury and ask for money to make good the losses you would sustain under your precious tariff if you should engage in foreign trade. You want to sell high-tariffed goods in a low-priced market, and tax the American people for the difference. You will not be allowed to show your new-born love for foreign trade in that way. You must begin at the other end of the problem. You cannot be permitted to sell goods to the Argentines at less prices than you charge American consumers for the same articles, and recoup yourselves from the national treasury. When you are ready to take a rational step toward the promotion of foreign trade, by removing the self-imposed obstacles and burdens under which it groans, you will have a better title to be heard on the subject of steamship lines. Until then you must be content to take your own medicine, to lie in your own bed, to "stew in your own grease."

The Boston *Herald* is now publishing a series of letters from Mr. Rowland Hazard on the wool duties. Mr. Hazard is the well-known manufacturer and publicist of Peacedale, Rhode Island. In his last communication he proves by statistics that the wool tariff, while hurtful to the manufacturer, is of no real benefit to the wool-grower. This fact has been so often demonstrated before by Mr. Hazard and others that a mere citation of the facts ought to be sufficient to convince every fair-minded man that the unholy alliance between the wool-growers and the manufacturers has been disastrous to both. It has been shown from the yearly reports that immediately after the tariff of 1867 went into effect, the number of sheep in the great wool-growing States began to decline, and that in 1877 there were less than half as many sheep in the States east of the Mississippi as there were in 1867. The figures showed that there were actually fewer sheep in the whole United States in 1877 than there were in 1867. Mr. Hazard pointed out that immediately after the tariff law of 1867 was passed there was a large falling off in the wool product of the whole country. The lowest depression was reached in 1871. Thereafter a process of recovery began, but the figures of 1868, notwithstanding the immense increase in California, Texas, and the Territories, were not reached until 1874, and the decline for the States east of the Mississippi River was not made good until

1881, although the country had made enormous strides in that interval in all other branches of agricultural industry.

The recent exhibition in detail of the evidence tending to show a most startling neglect and failure on the part of the State Department, the Treasury Department, and the Department of Justice to execute the tariff law, cannot fail to arrest and fix the attention of the mercantile community. The most essential and critical point in a high protective tariff levying ad valorem rates is the dutiable value, which depends on the fidelity of the consular, the appraising, and the law officers. But the evidence seems to show a conspiracy among those departments of the Government in the past to evade and neutralize the tariff law, by reducing dutiable values, while deluding American manufacturers with high protective rates. Of course it would be of little avail to raise, or maintain, the rate on silks of 50 per cent., if the dutiable value were silently dropped by as much as 25 per cent. As much benefit would flow to American industry by a rate of 37½ per cent. on a dutiable value of \$1, as by 50 per cent. on a dutiable value of only 75 cents. What can be the explanation of this neglect and failure in the Executive Department to enforce the high-tariff law? Will not some of our ex-Secretaries of State explain why and how the false invoices were certified as correct by the consular officers, and why the consular reports sent to the Department of State bore no fruit? What became of those consular reports? Is the Chief of the Consular Bureau, who had them in charge, now in office in the State Department? How happened it that the same consular officer certified the invoice as correct, and then told the State Department that it was incorrect? Did the Consul certify in order to get his fee, which, in the London Consulate, should only be ten English shillings, but which, under some hocus-pocus, has been raised to fifteen shillings? And, more extraordinary still, why were those who presented these false invoices not indicted, or otherwise proceeded against, in court? Of the false intent of the maker of the invoice there can be no question, if the statement of a special agent, dated September 6, 1882, is true, when he says that a Zurich manufacturer confessed to him that he, the manufacturer, under-invoiced by 20 per cent., and "justified this practice on the ground that the United States tariff is iniquitous and contrary to public policy and international comity, and that he could not ship to the United States if he declared his goods at the true value; that this practice had become established both at Zurich and Lyons."

Can anybody explain why the consignee who presented those knowingly false invoices at the Custom-house has not been indicted and tried? The American Consul at Horgen, Switzerland, wrote to the Department of State on November 1, 1883:

"Almost all the dollar-price system manufacturers of silk goods in Crefeld state that they have been for years enabled to export their goods to the United States in immense quantities without revealing to the Custom-house authorities the actual market prices at which their products are really sold, and which form the basis of consular invoices and dutiable

values. By such means honest importations are made practically impossible, and the customs revenue of the United States is systematically robbed of vast sums of money. Probably five-sixths of all the silk goods imported into the United States are consigned. Of this vast amount of consigned silk it is estimated that nearly all are undervalued from 15 to 40 per cent. below their market values in Europe, and the average of this undervaluation cannot be less than 25 per cent."

What do the records of the State Department disclose concerning that report? When does the index volume show that it was received? who seems to have read it? what action was taken on it? and is the chief of the consular bureau who received it now in office, or where is he? And so with the reports made by Consul-General Packard. Were these reports sent by the State Department to the Treasury Department, and by the latter to Collector Robertson? Unless the statements and reports made by the special agents and certain consular officers are pure fictions, the frauds upon the revenue and the evasions of a high protective tariff tolerated and winked at by eminent Republican leaders then in office were simply colossal. Will any high-tariff man in office or out of office explain this mystery?

The first returns of the new census in Massachusetts are from the small towns in the hill region of the western counties, and they show that the drift away from this region to the manufacturing towns and cities is losing none of its force. With very few exceptions these places report fewer inhabitants than in 1880, and where there has been any gain, it has been due to the introduction of some new industry rather than to an increase of the farming element. The change which has come over this part of the State during the last quarter of a century is very striking. A dozen towns in Berkshire and Franklin Counties, which contained 7,128 inhabitants in 1860, have only 5,929 in 1885. Eliminating the one where manufacturing has of recent years brought a large increase, the loss in the purely agricultural places is about 25 per cent., while one little town sustains but 160 people now, against 319 before the war. In not a few of these hill towns emigration has carried off an even larger proportion of the enterprise and public spirit than of the population, and the signs of retrograding in every direction are painfully apparent.

The growth of Nebraska during the decade between 1870 and 1880 was more rapid than that of any other State in the Union, with the single exception of Colorado; and, considering how much smaller the population of Colorado was than that of Nebraska in 1870, the increase of 267 per cent. in the latter State was quite as remarkable as the 387 per cent. in the former. The census just taken shows that Nebraska still continues to grow at a wonderful pace, almost complete returns indicating a population of nearly 700,000 in 1885, against 453,402 in 1880—a gain of about 50 per cent. in five years. At the outbreak of the war Nebraska and Nevada had not far from the same population, and later they came into the Union within three years of each other, but for some time past Nevada has been retrograding, until it now has proba

bly only about 50,000 people, while Nebraska has nearly 700,000.

A Western correspondent invites our attention to a card recently signed by forty-seven Iowa editors who were on an excursion to Oregon, that the prohibitory law is well enforced through their State, as a sufficient answer to our summary of the evidence of its flagrant violation in all the leading cities. We had already seen the card of which he writes, and had observed the significant fact that nearly all the signers were the editors of rural papers, who know nothing by observation of the operation of the law in the large centres. The opinion of such men is of no more importance than would be the opinion of a St. Lawrence County weekly regarding the treatment of the liquor question in New York and Brooklyn. We have never doubted that prohibition is enforced in many, perhaps most, of the country villages in Iowa. But prohibition was enforced in those places before there was any prohibitory law. It was and is enforced because public sentiment is strong enough to suppress the liquor traffic. But in the cities no such sentiment exists, and the consequence is that the traffic goes on practically unchecked there, while the sellers escape paying the revenue formerly demanded of them, and respect for all law is destroyed by the flagrant violation of the law most talked about. The simple fact about this business is that restraints upon intemperance are chiefly needed in the cities, and that the evidence is overwhelming that in the cities of Iowa the prohibitory law has rather increased than checked the facilities for getting drunk.

The divines and philanthropists who have been sitting as a committee of investigation on the *Pull Mall Gazette's* revelations, have reported that the *Gazette's* statements with regard to a certain "system of criminal vice" "are on the whole substantially true"; "without guaranteeing the accuracy of every particular," and "excluding inquiry into charges against particular men, or classes of men, or against the police." In other words, what the Commission finds "substantially true," may be found in the main in the evidence taken by the House of Lords in 1882-3, on which the Criminal Amendment Bill was founded. What the *Pull Mall Gazette* has added is a great deal of tawdry rhetoric and "good motives." The motives, however, would be, if not more respectable, certainly more respected, if they had not resulted in such enormous sales. On the really important question of a remedy the *Gazette* has not thrown one particle of light. The difficulty of cure is very great, as in all fields of crime or vice in which there is no angry victim to pursue the wrong-doer before the law. Usually when a crime or offence is committed, there is a sufferer ready and eager to put the law in motion. In the case of offences against sexual morality, this personage is generally wanting—in other words, there is no prosecutor. The work of suppression has to be left to the police. Now here is the rub. No city police force has yet been organized which has not become rapidly demoralized by arming them with powers of supervision over vicious persons. Either they get into the way of taking hush

money, or they persecute people who will not pay it, or they annoy perfectly innocent people in ways that may entail social ruin.

The savage article in the London *Standard* on Lord Randolph Churchill contains simply what everybody on both sides has been saying about him ever since he made his appearance in politics—that his bad temper would unfit him for any position of responsibility, even if his general ignorance and incapacity did not. The *Standard*, too, does not speak lightly. It is not too much to say that it stands not only at the head of the Conservative press in England, but at the head of the whole English press, both in the quality of its editorial writing, and in the ability and energy of its news-gathering, and in the excellence of its tone. We could hardly recommend a better illustration of what a newspaper ought to be, to a "professor of journalism" in a small college. But the article on Churchill does not reveal the secret of his greatness, or tell how he came to get a prominent Cabinet position, and be able, in conjunction with Sir Michael Beach, to switch Sir Stafford Northcote off to the House of Lords without a word of warning or apology. It could not do this without admitting that Churchill, such as he is, is a perfectly natural product of Tory politics during the last six years. The chief, if not the only contribution of Tory statesmen to politics, during that period at least, both in the House of Commons and in their houses, has been abuse of Gladstone. Nearly all the young men in London society who have grown up during the past ten years, have been taught to think that calling Gladstone names, and accusing him of monstrous crimes, was discussing public affairs. It has long been a favorite amusement of such of them as had got seats in the House of Commons to go down after dinner to the House simply to "draw Gladstone," or, as the boys say here, to "put up a job" on him—that is, irritate him by foolish questions or downright insults, or interrupt him by unseemly noises. It is through these tactics that such men as Churchill and Ashmead Bartlett have come to be known and talked of, and finally recognized as serious politicians. They have both got office by a long course of personal insult to a man whom neither of them is worthy to serve as a valet.

Some of the Liberal Ministers in England, now that they are out of office, are making curious confessions about the government of Ireland. We quoted what Mr. Chamberlain said the other day. Now comes Mr. Trevelyan, the late Secretary for Ireland, and talks, in a recent speech, as follows:

"Three years ago Lord Spencer and I found ourselves in a position as abstruse and difficult as often falls to the lot of public men. The administrative and social systems of Ireland were full of abuses. The affairs of the counties were administered by privileged, and not by representative bodies. The justices of the peace were, to a most preponderating extent, drawn from men whose religion and political opinions were not those of the country at large. The Parliamentary and municipal franchises and the registration system were a caricature of popular representation. These evils we hoped, in conjunction with the Irish members, to correct in time; and our expectation has in some important respects not been disappointed."

Taken in connection with Mr. Chamberlain's admissions, this is substantially a confession that Ireland is to-day the worst governed country in the civilized world, or, in other words, that Irish discontent is more than justified, but that the Irish do not show this discontent nicely. It has been held that being well represented in the British Parliament, and treated in every way as equals, they ought to be more patient and well-mannered. The Irish answer to this is a perfectly good one—that the possession of a small minority in an alien assembly is for practical purposes of no value whatever; that if there were full equality, the idea of the Irish helping to govern England would seem no more repulsive to Englishmen than the idea of the English governing Ireland.

An observation of the London *Times* on Mr. Trevelyan's speech shows that the doctrine of Irish political equality is not really held by Englishmen at all. It says:

"The position of the local-government question is such that in certain circumstances Mr. Parnell would apparently wield a great deal of power. Both parties are in fact pledged to measures not yet exactly defined, but certainly coinciding to a great extent with the aims of the Home Rulers, and until these measures were settled the Irish party would have the air of driving the coach. But any attempt to go beyond this would be defeated by the circumstance that there is no sound working distinction between the two English parties. They are separated by names and traditions, not by genuine differences of creed and method. Any risk of domination by an alien party would simply precipitate that reconstruction of parties which cannot, in any case, be very much longer postponed. People are very much mistaken who imagine that two or three effete nicknames and tattered party banners are going to hand this country over to the domination of Mr. Parnell and his followers. If events give Mr. Parnell for a time an apparently dominant influence, they will only hasten a rearrangement of political atoms which will speedily reduce him to his true position."

This is really an admission of all that Parnell has ever contended for, that he and his followers are simply sitting as aliens in a hostile assembly, and are therefore in that position of little use to their constituencies.

M. Clémenceau, the French doctor-statesman, is fond of "working a raw." He never touched a sorer spot in the Legislative chamber than when last week he opened the subject of the comparative loss and gain of French colonial exploitation. We recently cited the statistics published in the *Journal des Débats* showing that each French agricultural producer settled in Algeria required, or at all events was allowed, two soldiers for his protection—and this at the end of fifty years of hard fighting and colonizing. A more recent "trial balance" of the net results of colonial enterprise is supplied by a report, made at the instance of the Chamber of Commerce of Lyons upon the trade of Tonquin, by a merchant sent specially to inquire into it. He reported that the imports of Tonquin consisted of cotton goods and hardware from England and Germany, oil and soap from the United States, a few miscellaneous articles from Switzerland, and from France nothing except brandy, and very little of that. The report made a great stir when brought into comparison with the cost of the war in Tonquin, and the supporters of the war can think of nothing better than the enactment of differential duties in order to compel the natives to trade with France.

SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS.

[WEDNESDAY, July 20, to TUESDAY, August 4, 1886, inclusive.]

DOMESTIC.

PRESIDENT CLEVELAND, having been requested by Mrs. Grant to name the pall-bearers for General Grant's funeral, appointed on Thursday the following: Gen. William T. Sherman, U. S. A.; Lieut.-Gen. Philip H. Sheridan, U. S. A.; Admiral David D. Porter, U. S. N.; Vice-Admiral Stephen C. Rowan, U. S. N.; Gen. Joseph E. Johnston, of Virginia; Gen. Simon B. Buckner, of Kentucky; Hamilton Fish, of New York; George S. Boutwell, of Massachusetts; George W. Childs, of Pennsylvania; John A. Logan, of Illinois; George Jones, of New York; Oliver Hoyt, of New York.

General Hancock and his staff arrived at Mt. McGregor on Monday to take charge of the Grant funeral ceremonies after the private services on Tuesday.

Tuesday morning at Mt. McGregor dawned heavy with fog, but by 9 o'clock the sky was clear and a beautiful day was promised. At half-past 8 o'clock the doors of the Grant cottage had been thrown open, and a stream of visitors poured in steadily for over an hour. About 9 o'clock the head of a long line of wagons and various other kinds of vehicles appeared climbing up the steep incline near the eastern outlook, and soon the area in the vicinity of the cottage was thronged with vehicles and people. At 9:30 a train of two cars brought General Hancock and a number of other distinguished visitors. The two companies of regulars were drawn up to receive them. At 10 o'clock the funeral services were held at the cottage in the presence of about 1,000 people. The ceremonies opened with the reading of Psalm No. 90, which was followed by an impressive prayer by the Rt. Rev. Bishop Harris. The hymn "My Faith Looks Up to Thee" was joined in by the whole assemblage. Dr. Newman then delivered the sermon. It was a long eulogy of the dead as a soldier, as a civil officer, as a husband and father, and as a Christian. After another hymn the services were ended with a benediction. U. S. Grant Post 327, of Brooklyn, bore the remains from the cottage to the heavily-draped funeral train shortly before one o'clock. The military were drawn up and a salute was paid the remains as they passed to the depot. Soon after, the train started on its journey to Saratoga and Albany, and in the evening the body lay in state in the Capitol at the latter place, where it was viewed by thousands.

The special Committee of the Grant Monument Committee of this city held a meeting at noon on Wednesday. The Committee agreed upon a report for the formation of a permanent organization, in which ex-President Arthur was named as permanent Chairman, Mayor Grace and Hamilton Fish Vice-Chairmen, Drexel, Morgan & Co. Treasurers, and Professor Greener permanent Secretary. The General Committee was increased by the addition of more than 100 names, bringing the total membership up to between 150 and 175. A resolution was passed in favor of the establishment of organizations in every part of the United States for the collection of money for a national monument over the grave of General Grant. The name of the "Grant Monument Association" was adopted.

The Executive Committee of Fifteen of the Monument Committee, Chester A. Arthur, Chairman, on Thursday adopted an appeal to the people of the United States inviting them to contribute to a great national monument for General Grant, and adding: "All newspapers, railway, telegraph, and express companies, postmasters, banks, bankers, churches, and municipal authorities, commercial bodies and exchanges, manufacturing and business establishments are respectfully requested to co-operate in the immediate collection of contributions, to be forwarded to Drexel, Morgan & Co., New York, for this Committee, or to the

Mayor of New York, so that our entire people may have an opportunity of uniting in this last tribute to the memory of the illustrious dead."

As an index of the President's civil-service reform policy, it is pointed out that on March 4 there were in the Treasury seventy-two chiefs of division appointed under Republican Administrations, a majority of whom had attained their places by long service and gradual promotion, but some of whom had been appointed through political or social influence. After nearly five months of contest over these places, the record shows that of the seventy-two chiefs, seventeen have given place to Democratic successors, and the resignations of eleven more are in the hands of the Secretary, with some question as to whether all will be acted upon. Of the chiefs of division displaced with the consent of their chiefs of bureau, seven were subsequently reinstated in clerical positions. Of the chiefs displaced, some of the oldest Republican Treasury officers concede that not more than five or six were good officers, and some of these have been appointed to lower positions. The most efficient chiefs remain secure in their places.

Secretary Manning says that no change will be made in the office of the Appointment Division, and that it was never contemplated that Mr. Albright should succeed Mr. Higgins.

First Auditor Chenoweth, of the Treasury Department, has entered upon a detailed examination of the expenditures in the Coast Survey. He claims to have discovered that a professor in Johns Hopkins University in the service of the Coast Survey within the last few years has expended \$150,000 while performing the scientific work of "swinging the pendulum," and that in the course of these investigations he has nearly journeyed around the world. The First Auditor is of opinion that the expenditure of this amount is extravagant, and that the vouchers for it should not be audited.

Five American steamship companies—the Pacific Mail (San Francisco to Australia), the Red "D" (New York to Venezuela), the Clyde (New York to Turk's Island), the New York, Havana and Mexico, and the New York and Cuba Lines—declined to carry the United States mails after August 1. The Postmaster-General has directed that the following changes be made in the despatch of correspondence for foreign countries: "Mails for Cuba to be forwarded to Key West, Fla., via Tampa, Fla., for despatch from Key West to Havana by steamer which leaves Key West for Havana every Wednesday and Friday. Correspondence for New Zealand and the Australian colonies to be forwarded exclusively via Great Britain in mails made up at New York as well as San Francisco. There being only one despatch during August next (on the 1st prox.) from San Francisco for China and Japan direct, correspondence for China, Japan, and the East Indies to be also forwarded, until the 20th of August, via Great Britain, in mails made up at New York as well as at San Francisco."

The Virginia Democratic State Convention met on Wednesday. It was a fine body of men, and enthusiastically nominated Gen. Fitzhugh Lee for Governor. On Thursday John E. Massey was nominated for Lieutenant-Governor. A platform was adopted which pledges opposition to any increase of taxation, opposes all further agitation of the debt question, and reiterates the acceptance as a final settlement of the "Riddleberger Bill," renews the pledge of continued support of the public-school system, recommends a change in the revenue laws which will require a speedy settlement by the collecting officer, recommends supervision by the Legislature of the operation of the railroads of the State so as to prevent unjust or discriminating charges, advocates liberal support to insane asylums and continued aid to needy and disabled Confederate soldiers; commends the Administration of President Cleveland, and especially the President's action in removing offensive Federal officers in Virginia,

spurns the charges brought against the Democratic party in the document purporting to be a platform of the Republicans of the State, and concludes with a severe arraignment of the Republican party.

The Bankers' and Merchants' Telegraph Company was purchased at auction in this city on Friday, by Edward S. Stokes, for \$500,000.

A terrible storm on the Delaware River near Philadelphia and Camden, on Monday afternoon, took the form of a tornado, and seriously damaged a steamboat and a ferryboat, killing a pilot. Many buildings in Camden and Port Richmond were damaged. Five people are known to have been killed. The storm was very severe throughout New York, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Delaware, and New England.

Maud S. beat her record of 2:09 $\frac{1}{4}$ at Cleveland on Thursday by trotting a mile in 2:08 $\frac{3}{4}$.

Charles R. Train, Attorney-General of Massachusetts in 1879, died on Wednesday at the age of sixty-eight. He had been a member of Congress and United States District-Attorney for Northern Massachusetts.

FOREIGN.

The Grant memorial service in Westminster Abbey, London, on Tuesday afternoon was an imposing event. The edifice was crowded with a congregation nearly every member of which was a distinguished person, among them Mr. and Mrs. Gladstone, the Earl of Iddesleigh, Earl Cranbrook, Mr. Forster, Sir Lyon Playfair, and a great number of peers and members of the House of Commons, Prime Minister Salisbury, the Duke of Cambridge, Commander-in-Chief of the British Army, the Marquis of Lorne, Gen. Lord Wolseley, Chief-Justice Waite, ex-Attorney-General Benjamin H. Brewster, Senator Edmunds, Senator Hawley, and other prominent Americans. Queen Victoria was represented at the service by her equeury. Canon Farrar delivered a most impressive address, in which he said: "What verdict history will pronounce upon Grant as a politician and a man I know not; but here and now the voice of censure, deserved or undeserved, is silent. We leave his faults to the mercy of the merciful. Let us write his virtues on brass for men's example. Let his faults, whatever they may have been, be written on water. Who can tell if his closing hours of torture and misery were not blessings in disguise—God purging the gold from dross until the strong man was utterly purified by his strong agony? Could we be gathered in a more fitting place to honor General Grant? There is no lack of American memorials here. We add another to-day. Whatever there be between the two nations to forget and forgive is forgotten and forgiven. If the two peoples which are one be true to their duty, who can doubt that the destinies of the world are in their hands? Let America and England march in the van of freedom and progress, showing the world not only a magnificent spectacle of human happiness, but a still more magnificent spectacle of two peoples united, loving righteousness and hating iniquity, inflexibly faithful to the principles of eternal justice, which are the unchanging law of God."

The Salvation Army marched on Thursday afternoon with much parade to the Parliament buildings to present to the House of Commons a monster petition urging the immediate passage of the Criminal Act Amendment raising the age of consent in girls from thirteen years, the present period, to eighteen. The petition contains 500,000 signatures, and is one mile and a half long. It was borne in a special carriage. A member of Parliament presented it impressively to the House. The amendment was debated for six hours that evening in Parliament. Mr. Gladstone has written a letter advocating raising the protected age to eighteen.

Replying on Thursday night in the House of Commons to questions in regard to the Egyptian loan, Sir Michael Hicks-Beach, Chancellor

of the Exchequer, said that the houses of Bleichroder and Rothschild had floated the loan in Paris and Berlin, owing to the international questions arising out of the entire transaction. The Government, he said, would place before the House the entire correspondence relating to the loan.

In the House of Commons on Friday night, an amendment to the Criminal Bill providing for the flogging of persons convicted of assaulting children was rejected by a vote of 125 to 91. An amendment raising the age of protection of girls to sixteen years was carried by a vote of 179 to 71. The Sixpenny Telegram Bill passed its third reading.

The Criminal Amendment Bill was passed in Committee by the House of Commons on Monday evening.

At the Lord Mayor's banquet in London on Wednesday night, Lord Salisbury replied to the toast to the Ministers. He admitted that Mr. Gladstone's assurances had been honorably adhered to. He defended the Government against the charge of adopting a Liberal policy, and contended that the extended franchise in Ireland necessitated a change of policy in the direction adopted. In regard to foreign affairs, he said it was necessary for the honor of the nation that the Government should continue the policy of the late Government, even though it was opposed to the Conservative policy; but they regretted their inability to continue the threads of the policy left by Lord Beaconsfield. The Government would, however, devote themselves to domestic affairs and the promotion of such a condition of things in countries in Africa and the East dependent upon England as would restore a cordial feeling among the European Powers, which was essential for the prosperity of the world.

A split in the Tory camp, which threatens to become serious, was made public in London on Wednesday evening, when Lord Randolph Churchill declined, at the last moment, to attend a great Tory meeting at Liverpool, at which he had been advertised as one of the chief speakers. He based his refusal upon the fact that the two Tory members of the House for the city of Liverpool had declined to support him, owing to the Irish policy of the Cabinet.

The *Standard* (Tory organ) on Friday morning bitterly attacked Lord Randolph Churchill. It denounced him for refusing to speak at Liverpool because the borough members were displeased with his Irish policy, and described him as a much overrated, impudent, overgrown schoolboy. It said that he was only good at insulting his superiors, and that his very ordinary talents are lauded by an interested clique. The article continued, "It is time to speak out. We will not be imposed upon by this overgrown schoolboy verging on middle age, but without a man's sense. Lord Salisbury must decide quickly, or Churchill, having already worked irreparable harm, will ruin the Conservative party." The parting shot described Lord Randolph as a miserable, absurd imitation of Disraeli, without the one-fiftieth part of his ability. The *Standard* congratulated the Liverpool Commons on their courage, and said their action had won the approval of every Conservative worthy of the name. The article made a great political sensation. It is thought that the breach may be healed and Lord Randolph speak in Liverpool later. A well-informed London correspondent says: "Tory opinion is divided. The younger and more progressive members feel that they can accomplish nothing by the policy of Churchill's opponents. The older and more cautious ones see certain danger and possible disruption in their party as a result of Churchill's recklessness. The *Standard* received an inspired hint from high quarters to attack Churchill."

It is expected that Mr. Gladstone will visit Midlothian in October to take the stump if his health permits. The general election will be held in the third week in November.

The Marquis of Salisbury has agreed to the request of Baron de Staal, the Russian Ambassador, to suspend the negotiations in relation to the Afghan boundary question until M. de Giers, Russian Foreign Minister, obtains a report of the topographic survey which has been ordered of Zulfikar Pass. It is also said that England has agreed to Russia's proposal to leave the Zulfikar question to be settled by the Joint Boundary Commission.

The Marquis of Salisbury has opened negotiations with the Porte for a Sudan expedition. Mr. White, the British Minister ad interim at Constantinople, reports that the Sultan is willing to occupy the eastern Sudan on the condition that a part of the cost of the occupation shall be defrayed by Egypt, and the Porte be left with free hands in the settlement of the occupied provinces. Sir Henry Drummond Wolff's mission to the Sultan has reference solely to the question of administrative control in Egypt. The Sultan keenly opposes an international control. Lord Salisbury is shaping a policy to maintain English predominance in the administration of Egyptian affairs. Sir Henry Drummond Wolff is charged to obtain the Sultan's consent to a scheme of administrative reform which shall place power in the hands of the English or of English nominees.

The Khedive of Egypt has issued a decree explaining the charges to be paid out of the new Egyptian loan of \$45,000,000. He says the claims for indemnity arising out of the bombardment and pillage of Alexandria and the losses resulting from the British occupation will constitute the first charge on the loan. Five million dollars of the loan, it is intended, the decree states, shall be expended in irrigation works for the benefit of the fallen engaged in agricultural pursuits. It is rumored that the Egyptian Deputies have resolved to investigate the whole list of indemnity awards, with a view to ascertaining the exact truth about the reiterated charges that a large proportion of the awards are of a fraudulent nature. The subscriptions to the loan were closed in London on Thursday. They aggregated four times the amount of the loan.

The British Government has appointed a commission to inquire into and report upon the condition and education of the blind in England. Mr. Campbell, one of the members of the Commission, will come to the United States for the purpose of examining the methods used here to enable sightless persons to acquire literary and mechanical knowledge.

The chairman of the committee appointed some time ago to inquire into and report upon the condition of the Irish industries has presented an informal report to Parliament. In this it is stated that all Irish industries, with the single exception of linen manufacture, are at present in a deplorable condition. The report recommends the improvement of the railway facilities of Ireland, the introduction of a course of teaching of the sciences relating to industrial work in all the national schools, and a comprehensive system of arterial drainage, without which, the report declares, proper cultivation of the soil in Ireland on a sufficiently extensive plan is impossible.

Renewed excitement in the Munster Bank affair has been caused by the sudden disappearance of Robert Farquharson, the recent joint manager. His books have been examined, and so far show an embezzlement of \$350,000. A reward has been offered for his apprehension. The missing man is about forty years of age, and was a director in several companies. The highest confidence was reposed in him. The accountant's balance sheet of the bank shows liabilities of £2,148,012, and assets of £2,187,447. It is believed that the reserves, amounting to £225,000, will suffice to cover all risks. The shareholders have approved the plan of petitioning the Court of Chancery to appoint a provisional liquidator of the bank's affairs pending the organization of a new bank, with a capital of \$3,750,000, of which \$1,500,000 shall be called.

The committee to inquire into the statements of the *Pull Mall Gazette* in regard to London vice has made the following report: "Having been requested to inquire as to the truth of statements printed in the *Pull Mall Gazette* from July 6 to July 10, we decided from the first to exclude inquiry into charges against particular men or classes of men, or against the police. We strictly confined ourselves to an inquiry into the system of criminal vice described. After carefully sifting the evidence of witnesses and materials before us, without guaranteeing the accuracy of every particular, we are satisfied that on the whole the statements of the *Pull Mall Gazette* are substantially true." Signed by the Archbishop of Canterbury, the Bishop of London, Cardinal Manning, and Messrs. Morley and Reid.

Cholera has made its appearance at Marseilles and Paris. In Spain on Monday there were reported 3,718 new cases, and 1,501 deaths.

The Madagascar debate was continued in the French Chamber of Deputies on Thursday with much violence, M. Clémenceau making a severe attack on M. Ferry's policy. M. Brisson said that the Cabinet aimed at uniting the forces of the republic and preserving national property. He appealed to the Chambers to vote the credit, and promised that the Government would do its utmost to arrange that the colonies should cost less and contribute more than at present. The credit was then voted—291 to 142.

The annual meeting of the Panama Canal Company was held in Paris on Wednesday. M. de Lesseps read the annual report, which was received with applause. The Chairman thought that the Canal Company had nothing to fear from the United States. The Monroe doctrine, he declared, was perfectly consistent with the company's enterprise. One of the bondholders present questioned the figures in the report, and demanded that a committee of inquiry be appointed. M. Charles de Lesseps opposed the motion, and the report was unanimously adopted. The old Board of Directors was re-elected. The meeting unanimously authorized the Board to persist in its application to the French Government to permit a lottery loan of 600,000,000 francs.

Dr. Henri Milne Edwards, the well-known French naturalist, died in Paris on Wednesday.

The Mahdi before his death selected Abdullah for the Southern Sudan, Osman Digna for the Northern Sudan, Senussi for Egypt, and Mollah Abdullahman for Kordofan and Darfur, to continue the war, and appropriated 20,000,000 piastres therefor.

In the trial of Riel at Regina on Thursday the case for the defence was opened. Two physicians testified that Riel was insane. Riel protested against this line of defence, and quarrelled with his counsel. He wanted to conduct the case himself. The counsel practically abandoned the case, resting it on the plea of insanity. Riel made a remarkable speech in his own defence at the close of the trial, asserting that he was acting in accordance with a divinely appointed mission.

The jury on Saturday brought in a verdict of guilty. The foreman, while crying like a child, asked on behalf of his fellow-jurors that the prisoner be recommended to the mercy of the Crown. Riel was sentenced to be hanged on September 18. There is much feeling among the French Canadians over the subject, and they will use every effort to have the sentence commuted.

A fire in Toronto on Monday morning destroyed property along the Esplanade and wharves to the amount of \$1,000,000.

Pedro Prestan, the rebel who burned Colon on March 28, has been captured by the Government forces at Cartagena, and will be hanged. It is reported that the Government troops have taken Baranquilla, Savanilla, and Salgar.

POLITICAL SHIPBUILDING.

SECRETARY WHITNEY'S remarks to the members of the Advisory Board, who are to report upon the plans for the four new cruisers which are still to be built, should be read carefully by the late Secretary, Mr. Chandler, before he writes any more defences of his client, John Roach. It is evident that Mr. Whitney is endeavoring to secure a different kind of shipbuilding from that which his predecessors have been encouraging. Nothing in the controversy over Mr. Roach's failure has been more curious than the constant assumption of his friends that in Government shipbuilding there must be "politics" to a greater or less degree. Mr. Chandler is so thoroughly convinced of this that he can see nothing but political motives in Secretary Whitney's conduct, though all that the latter has done is to decline, in behalf of the Government, whose servant he is, to accept a vessel which does not come up to the specifications of the contract. The remarkable list of defects which the Examining Board discovered in her construction stands not only unrefuted but unexplained, and the only answer which the contractor's friends—including Mr. Chandler—make is, that Mr. Whitney is actuated by political motives, and the examiners were not friendly to Mr. Chandler. In his last published letter, Mr. Chandler goes over the ground again, and asks, with comical pathos, at the close, if the friends of Mr. Whitney "are willing to see the Republican press manifest the same disposition toward the four additional ships which the Democratic press have shown toward the *Dolphin*, *Chicago*, *Boston*, and *Atlanta*?"

This moving question is best answered by Mr. Whitney's remarks to his Advisory Board. He tells them that Congress has put upon him the responsibility of building four ships "of the best modern design," "having the highest attainable speed," and then adds:

"It is desirable to proceed with great caution in this matter, and to take no step without its being absolutely a sure one; and in order to do this it is necessary that the Department should be possessed of all the information possible to be gathered in regard to what other people have done. No private individual would set out to spend \$3,000,000 in construction without first, for his own advisement, becoming acquainted with the best things that had been done by others in the same direction. Therefore, if it should appear to you desirable, before making the decision which I ask of you, that further and more detailed information should be had of the doings of other countries, I consider that the Department has the power to expend money therefor; and I consider it very wise and judicious to expend it. I have already, for the last three months, been expending money in that direction, and a good deal of evidence will be found to have been already accumulated. I think it possible for me to say these things without reflecting at all upon the Department. It is only with the greatest effort that any nation is able to keep up with the improvements in shipbuilding, and, of course, it has been impossible in a department where no new ships of modern design have been built until those recently undertaken. Therefore it is desirable that we should proceed modestly and deliberately, taking all necessary time to inform ourselves that the thing which we adopt is the wisest and best, after we have examined thoroughly, and with knowledge of what others have done. Until that time comes I do not propose to take any step. The portion of the complete ship requiring the longest time is the armament, and that not having been appropriated for in this instance, gives all necessary time to proceed deliberately and wisely. After the decision has been made what the ship shall be, what her size, horse-power, weight of engines, space for engines,

what her armament and armor and so on shall be, then comes the second stage, which is putting this general design into the hands of technical men to prepare in detail the plans and specifications on which the work is to be done. That step I do not at present desire advice upon. It will be the second stage in the work."

To realize what a radical change in Government shipbuilding this foreshadows, we have only to recall some of the methods pursued by Mr. Roach and his defender, Mr. Chandler. When a description of the still uncompleted cruiser *Chicago* was made public in January, 1883, it was discovered that the engines adopted for her use were of a type which had been tried for propellers twenty-five or thirty years ago, and abandoned. The only one existing outside the *Chicago* is somewhere in Scotland, where a propeller-beam engine, designed about 1830, is preserved and kept on exhibition as a means of illustrating the progress made in marine engineering during the last half century. This ancient type was, we believe, adopted because Mr. Roach had the drawings and patterns already on hand, and could build more cheaply than if a new type were used. The weight of the boilers and machinery, which promised a speed of only fourteen knots an hour, was nearly equal to that of the newer type in modern British cruisers, which give a speed of eighteen knots an hour. The saving in weight between the new type and the old would increase the "coal endurance" of the cruiser, a most important quality, at least 50 per cent. It was also discovered that this ancient machinery of the *Chicago* called for a consumption of coal more than double that of the best modern Brazilian ironclad, and that if the engines of the Brazilian vessel were to be substituted for those of the *Chicago*, the latter would have a maximum speed of 17.6 knots per hour instead of 15, and would have additional room enough to carry coal sufficient to steam at 15 knots' speed 6,000 miles instead of 3,000. In other words, had she been fitted with the latest modern machinery, instead of John Roach's old type, her efficiency would have been doubled. This, in an unarmored cruiser, a vessel in which speed and endurance are the prime requisites, would have been the precise thing which Congress desired when it authorized the construction of a "coal-protected steam cruiser containing the latest improvements in naval construction."

Congress undoubtedly supposed, when it called for the building of such vessels, that a contractor could be found capable of constructing them. Mr. Roach himself had informed a committee of Congress that there was no doubt about getting the speed and other elements desired, and that the way to do it was to throw the full responsibility upon the contractor, and treat him precisely as if he were dealing with a merchant instead of the Government. Yet Mr. Roach and Chandler put their heads together and began to build vessels which contained antiquated machinery, and were so full of defects of all kinds that little defence or explanation of their workmanship has ever been attempted; and when Secretary Whitney takes Mr. Roach at his word and treats him as a merchant would under such circumstances, Mr. Roach fails, says he is the "victim of political persecution," and Mr. Chandler says that Mr. Whitney's conduct is dishonest.

Mr. Whitney gives his Advisory Board notice that he is not a political shipbuilder, and we have not the slightest doubt that he means what he says. We trust that the Republican press will treat his work precisely as the Democratic and Independent press has treated Roach's and Chandler's. Let them insist that when a contract is made for a vessel to have a sea speed of fifteen knots, a clause shall not be put in attempting to make the Government accept her whether she be able to develop it or not, or whether she be able to keep under headway at all away from her dock. If Mr. Roach, as the Great Republican Shipbuilder, be succeeded by somebody else as the Great Democratic Shipbuilder, let the whole Republican press, led by Mr. Chandler, lay on the lash and spare not. We promise them the heartiest possible coöperation.

PARTY DISINTEGRATION.

Two eminent citizens of Connecticut, a Blaine Republican and a Democrat, were recently talking over the political situation. Both are astute politicians and close observers. Said the Democrat, who is an earnest civil-service reformer: "If an important election were to be held in Connecticut to-morrow, 50 per cent. of the Democratic voters would stay away from the polls because of dissatisfaction with the way in which the Cleveland Administration has distributed the offices." Said the Republican, who has been a working politician for years: "At the same election 50 per cent. of the Republican voters would stay away from the polls because they would not be willing to disapprove the course of the Cleveland Administration." "What does it all mean?" asked the Democrat. "It means," replied the Republican, "that the old parties are going to pieces, and I for one am ready for it."

No close observer can doubt that there is a similar condition of affairs in nearly every other State in the Union. The estimate which the Connecticut authorities quoted above give of the dissatisfied in each party strikes us as excessive, but that there is a large number of such voters in both organizations cannot be questioned. The feeling that since the Republicans have had all the offices for a quarter of a century it is no more than fair that the Democrats should have a chance at them now, is very general in the Democratic party. Every Democrat who has been seeking an office and has not got it, is doing his best to aggravate this feeling. He represents the workers of the party—the men whose business it is to get out the sluggish voters on election day. If these workers were to refrain from all exertions at an election because of their personal disappointment, there would undoubtedly be a great falling off in the Democratic vote. We doubt, however, if the loss would amount to one-half of the whole. It is notorious that Democrats are very reluctant to desert their party. They growl all through a campaign, and then vote solidly the party ticket when election day arrives. That many of them are growing now everybody knows, but when it comes to the question of deserting their party because the President of their choice is keeping his pledges and giving the country an honest, non-partisan Administration, we do not believe that more than 10 per cent. of them at most will be

equal to the emergency. It is noticeable of all the growling that it is done in private. No important Democratic journal has yet ventured to oppose the President's course, and no Democratic Convention has adopted a platform openly disapproving it. We hazard the prediction that in the campaigns of this autumn there will not be a Democratic stump speaker who will venture to speak anything but praise of the President. That is the perplexing thing about the Democratic discontent. It must be borne in silence. To formulate it is to show its absolute unworthiness.

On the Republican side the situation is no less interesting. The party is really divided already into two sections. Upon one side are the Bourbons, who are determined to cling to the old superstition that the Democratic party is made up mainly of unscrupulous men who are bent upon the ruin of the country. They will not admit that anything good has been done or will be done by the present Administration. They have completely changed ground on the question of civil-service reform. They declared all through last year's campaign that Cleveland would never be able to keep his pledges if elected, and that no matter how well disposed he might be personally, his party would inevitably control him. Now that this prophecy has failed of fulfilment, they turn about and say that civil-service reform is a humbug any way, that the offices belong to politics, and that of all Pharisaical and hypocritical pretences ever adopted, that of the present Administration, that it is giving the country non-partisan rule, is the most contemptible. Rather than praise the President they are willing to return to the old doctrine of spoils. They have been forced into this position by the growling of the Democrats, which has made it useless to assert that the President is not sincerely carrying out his professed reform policy.

But the Bourbon section of the Republican party is dwindling every day, and the other section, which thinks well of the President and believes in supporting him in every worthy act, is increasing. The steady, straightforward, simple, honest, business-like course of the Administration is sapping the life of every Bourbon principle. It cannot be said any longer that the "country is in peril" whenever the Democrats are likely to come into power. That "principle" was the bulwark which saved the Republican party in many a conflict, but it is gone forever. If was summed up in the "sectional issue," and how completely that has been buried the solemn exercises of the present week will bear most emphatic testimony. The final words of General Grant upon that subject, together with the spectacle of Northern and Southern soldiers walking together beside his bier, will be sufficient to silence even the Bourbons. As Horace Greeley said of them years ago: "Your attempt to found a great enduring party upon the hatred and wrath necessarily engendered by a bloody civil war, is as though you had founded a colony on an iceberg which had somehow drifted into a tropical ocean." That their attempt has failed is clear enough for all men to see. Even Simon Cameron, one of the most devoted of its adherents, sees it, for he has telegraphed to the son of General Grant a

heartily commendation of the selection of two ex-Confederate generals for pall-bearers at the General's funeral, adding: "Your father's prayer for peace to his country has been answered, and the last bitterness of the war wiped out forever."

The growling of disappointed Democrats and the bitter denunciations of Bourbon Republicans proceed from the same kind of men in both parties—the men, namely, who love the old methods and do not wish to see them done away with. These men may be able to control one-half of the voters in each of the old parties, but we do not believe it. Sooner or later they will come together in a party of their own, and opposed to them will be the men who approve the course of President Cleveland and are determined to uphold him in it. It is our firm belief that the latter class at present contains a clear majority of the American people, and that their attachment to old party names is weakened daily.

STATISTICS OF MARRIAGE.

A CHANGE in the public sentiment of a nation regarding matrimony is a social fact of the first magnitude. There is abundant evidence that such a change has during the last quarter of a century been coming over the American people, and especially that portion of it which lays special claim to the title American by descent from the stock which came earliest to this country.

The newer States of the Union for obvious reasons furnish no basis for comparisons, and few of the older States have for a long period collected data regarding marriage worthy of confidence. But statistics sufficiently complete to warrant a conclusion have been gathered in some parts of New England. Massachusetts has long been conspicuous for the accuracy of her vital statistics, a full report regarding the number of births, marriages, and deaths having been prepared annually for more than forty years. We have thus the data for a comparison of the number of marriages during the decade preceding the war with the number during the decade just closed, covering a period a quarter of a century later. Examination shows that the average number of marriages per year for the ten years beginning with 1850 was 11,873, while the average number for the ten years beginning with 1875 was 15,138. The population of Massachusetts in 1850 was 994,514, while in 1875 it was 1,651,912, and the percentage of increase was about the same during the last ten years as in the ten years following 1850. The population of 1875 was 66 per cent. greater than that of 1850, and the same ratio will hold for the whole decade following 1875 as compared with that following 1850. It thus appears that, while there have been 66 per cent. more people capable of getting married during the last ten years than there were between 1850 and 1860, less than 28 per cent. more have actually done so. Population has increased two-thirds, and marriages less than one-third. To put it in another way, out of every thousand people in the State twenty-one used to be married each year, while now the number reaches only seventeen.

The vital statistics of Connecticut have been

collected ever since 1848, although not so carefully as in Massachusetts. The number of marriages reported in Connecticut during the ten years beginning with 1850 averaged 3,477, while the number during the last ten years has averaged 4,677. The population of the State in 1850 was 370,792, and in 1875 about 580,000. In other words, the number of inhabitants during the last decade has been 56 per cent. greater than in the earlier period, but the number of marriages has been only 34 per cent. greater. There is reason to believe that the discrepancy is in reality even larger, for it is well known that there has been more accuracy in registration of late years than formerly, so that the number of marriages actually contracted between 1850 and 1860 must have exceeded the number reported in greater measure than was the case during the last ten years. Making allowance for this consideration, it seems fair to conclude that the disparity between the increase of marriageable people and the increase of marriages is about as marked in Connecticut as in Massachusetts.

Dr. Edwin M. Snow, of Providence, R. I., has for thirty years compiled a careful and complete annual report in relation to the births, marriages, and deaths in that city, and the body of statistics which he has thus collected furnish a better basis for conclusions than can be found in the case of any other large city in the country. From these figures it appears that the number of marriages in Providence in the period before the war averaged 619 per year, while during the past ten years the average has been 1,099. The population of the city was 47,785 at the beginning of the earlier period, and 100,675 at the beginning of the later. That is to say, the number of people who might get married was 115 per cent. larger during the last ten years than in the decade before the war, while the number who did get married was only 77 per cent. greater.

The population of Ohio has always been largely recruited from New England, and it is evident that the same influences are at work among the descendants of the Yankees in the Western State as among those who remain in the land of their ancestors. Before the war the number of marriages in Ohio averaged about 23,000 a year, the total for 1860 being 23,106, while for five years past the number has averaged 29,255. The population of the State in 1860 was 2,339,511, and in 1880, 3,198,062. The number of inhabitants had increased about 37 per cent., and the number of marriages only 26 per cent.

These statistics only confirm the conclusions which any observing person of wide acquaintance who has considered the subject is sure to have reached. It can hardly be questioned that the average standard of comfort in such States as Massachusetts, Connecticut, and Ohio is higher than it was a generation ago; or that the proportion of young men capable of providing good homes is fully as large as it was thirty years ago. Indeed, the old bachelor of the present day is more likely to be a man who could support a family in comfort than was the case in the days before the war. Yet the old bachelor is constantly becoming a more numerous class of the community, and thereby swelling in equal measure the ranks of the old maids,

The most potent reason for this change is undoubtedly the economical one. The change is most marked among the well-to-do class. Young men of this class grow up with luxurious habits, which a bachelor's income will sustain, but which are incompatible with the support of a wife and children. The cost of maintaining a family in good style and of giving children a liberal education increases more rapidly than the earnings of the husband and father. A man sees that if he marries, he must abandon modes of life which have become essential to his comfort, and he fears that the more restricted plane of expenditure would be as disagreeable to the woman as to himself. He therefore hesitates to marry—finally concludes not to try the experiment—or if he does marry, he has few children, for the statistics show with equal clearness that the birth-rate is diminishing even more rapidly than the marriage-rate among the higher classes.

THE OPENING OF THE GOETHE ARCHIVES AT WEIMAR.

EVER since the life of Goethe began to be studied in a scientific spirit, students of him have been looking forward with interest to the time when the archives of the Goethe family at Weimar should be thrown open to the scrutiny of scholars. Hitherto this most valuable source of information has been practically closed to all comers. The current story is that the poet's heirs refused the liberal offer made for the house and its contents by the German Government, in the hope of getting a still larger price from foreign sources. Whether this be true, or whether the heirs may have had other and better reasons for denying all access during half a century to Goethe's private documents, we do not profess to know. That any service has been done thereby to the memory of the poet, is not apparent; and as to the market value of his property, that would have been increased rather than diminished if the public had been allowed to know just what the collection contained, and if reputable scholars had been permitted to make scientific use of it. So far as we can see, the owners of the property have gained nothing by their conduct except possibly the barbarous satisfaction of reading, in almost every biography of their great ancestor, frequent statements to the effect that this, that, or the other point will never be cleared up so long as the archive at Weimar remains closed. At last, however, the wish of scholars and of the educated public is to be gratified; the Goethe house, bequeathed by Walter von Goethe to the present Grand Duchess of Saxe-Weimar, has been by her quite recently thrown open to the uses of science. It is also announced that the Grand Duchess will immediately cause two important works to be undertaken, both of which will be greatly facilitated by the collections now in her possession. These are, first, a complete and authentic edition of the works of Goethe, and, secondly, a compendious biography to be prepared conjointly by various different specialists. There is thus good prospect that the world will soon be in possession of whatever light the Goethe house in Weimar can throw upon the career of its illustrious founder.

Meanwhile, pending the thorough sifting of the material by those charged with the work, the public has been favored with a provisional statement of what the archive contains. On June 20 and 21 a German Goethe society was organized at Weimar. At this meeting Herr von Loeper, the well known editor of Goethe, and

Professor Scherer, of Berlin, who had been rummaging for several days in the newly-opened archive, made a partial report of their findings. This report has been published in a communication by Ludwig Geiger, editor of the *Goethe Jahrbuch*, to the *Deutsche Literaturzeitung*. It is from Geiger mainly that we have derived the facts here stated. Von Loeper had examined two cabinets of the archive (there being six in all), and reported the discovery (if such a term be proper) of valuable documents of three different kinds, viz., first, original manuscripts of the works of Goethe; secondly, letters from correspondents; and lastly, the poet's journals. These last, of which hitherto only scanty extracts have been made public, begin in 1776, shortly after Goethe's arrival in Weimar, and end March 16, 1832, six days previous to their author's death. One break of considerable length occurs, namely, between 1782 and 1796, there being during these years only two short entries. The journals are said to increase in fulness with the writer's years, and to average four thick volumes per annum. It is interesting to note that in one of these, for the year 1805, a number of white leaves had been left; it was the year of the death of Schiller. Here, in this journal, Herr von Loeper remarked, would be the firm ground for future biographers of Goethe. As to the letters, they too cover about fifty years, and are both to and from Goethe. Of the latter kind the most valuable will be a long series written by the poet to his wife between 1792 and 1816. Von Loeper seemed to think that these letters will help to clear up a much misunderstood aspect of Goethe's life, his character as a husband and father. Of letters to Goethe, most importance will attach to those from his mother, and to some (rather late ones, to be sure) from Frau von Stein.

The manuscripts discovered will not in any sense revolutionize the familiar aspect of Goethe's text, but will be of great value in the preparation of future critical editions; for much of the text of Goethe is still in a bad condition. They begin with the only known copy of the 'Höllenfahrt Christi' of 1766, and end with the second part of 'Faust' of 1832. Unfortunately, the one manuscript from Goethe's hand which students of him would give most to get sight of, does not yet turn up. This is the original draft of the early scenes of 'Faust,' the roll of paper from which the poet used to read to his admiring friends from 1774 on, and which he took with him to Italy in 1786. It has been believed, though perhaps on insufficient grounds, that this manuscript would settle certain perplexing questions regarding the first conception and plan of the drama, as, for example, whether there was ever a prose 'Faust'; whether the play grew up from the beginning around two nuclei—namely, the character of *Faust* and the tragedy of *Margaret*; and also how *Mephistopheles* was originally conceived, both in his own character and in his relation to *Faust* and to the *Earth Spirit*. But although this manuscript was not found, other material was found which will, it is thought, be of great assistance in the elucidation of Goethe's masterpiece, particularly the second part of it.

Finally, it may be added that a somewhat detailed and very enthusiastic report was made to the nascent Goethe Society upon the character and the value of their hero's famous art collection. The fact was deemed worthy of special emphasis that Goethe founded a collection upon really scientific principles, at a time when most of his contemporaries had not got beyond the point of curiosity-hunting. Evidently the new society will set its face sternly against that popular heresy into which many innocent travellers have fallen, and which was tersely formulated in 1854 by George Eliot as follows: "This collection is utterly insignificant, except as having be-

longed to him." Be that as it may, the opening of the archive at Weimar is certainly a literary event of genuine importance, the remote consequences of which cannot now be foreseen. It is an event which, taken in connection with numerous signs of the time, goes far to indicate that Herman Grimm was not simply patriotic, but also entirely correct, when he said at Berlin, a few years ago: "For thousands of years there has been a science called Homer; for some centuries there has been one bearing the name of Dante, of Shakspeare; henceforth there will be a science to be known as Goethe."

EXTENSION OF THE CIVIL-SERVICE SYSTEM.

WASHINGTON, D. C., July 21.

THE establishment of a system of appointments based upon competitive examinations is now accepted as an accomplished fact. The value of this achievement is variously estimated, even by its friends. It is not, however, merely a new experiment; it has been put to the practical test of trial, and it is pretty well known what it will and what it will not do. It will hardly be questioned that it will secure a more intelligent and efficient class of minor officers, give greater permanence to their tenure, and, even as at present restricted, diminish in some measure the demoralizing effects of the spoils system upon the elections. Its application is at present, however, very limited. Out of a total number of public offices and positions of over one hundred thousand, it embraces about fifteen thousand. Its domain is thus relatively small. All the higher offices and many inferior places are beyond the scope and beneficent effect of the system. It is, in fact, restricted to the mere crumbs and drippings of patronage. Evidently this was not intended to be the final result; it was avowedly only the first step.

This first step was taken under a Republican administration, and it was honestly and fairly maintained. It was felt, however, that the nomination made by that party in 1884 presaged no further step in the extension of the system. The party in opposition availed itself of this distrust, and, upon the faith which was reposed in its leader, won the last election. It is now nearly five months since he took the reins of Government, and during these busy months he has given some definite intimations of his purpose concerning civil-service reform. Rebuking the eager haste and indiscriminate greed of the clamorous horde of office-seekers that swept down upon him during the first weeks of his Administration, he has manifested a moderation, an independence of political dictation, and a disregard of mere partisan services, which has caused deep mutterings among the party workers. And in several instances, such as the reappointment of Postmaster Pearson, and in the promotion of Mr. Graves to the Bureau of Engraving and Printing, he has met the highest expectations of the most intelligent and liberal men in both parties. He has thus taken an advanced position in the conduct of his Administration in respect to appointments.

This position, however, is one which is dependent upon high personal qualities, which require to be firmly maintained, and vigorously and unflinchingly exercised, or it is liable to be swept away at any moment. Such qualities are the pride and glory of the State, but upon their permanent possession and undaunted energy communities cannot safely rely. It is for this reason that laws are enacted, systems of government established, and constitutions ordained. And for this reason any advance in methods of appointment to public office, to have a lasting value and become an enduring heritage, must be

reflected in and stamped upon the laws and regulations of the service. A forward movement, therefore, to be on permanent lines, should rest on the base of written law. For such a movement the aid of Congress is necessary; but without such aid the President may lead the way by a broader interpretation and wider application of the present statute, and by a progressive modification of existing rules.

Applying this test to recent events, it might be urged by a cynical observer that, while the column has been headed toward the enemy, and the standard erected on higher ground, the actual line of movement has been retrogressive. It is true this movement has been small, but the direction gives it importance; a single backward step is often perilous. The retrograde step which is here referred to is the interpretation which has been given to that clause in the civil-service rules which excepts chiefs of division in the departments at Washington from examination.

It has heretofore been the practice in the various departments, with perhaps one or two exceptions, to fill all vacancies occurring in those positions by promotion from the lower grades; thus securing in general chiefs of division having a knowledge of their duties gathered from a long and valuable experience. It is to be presumed that the exception made by the rules in respect to this class of officers was made in the interests of the public service, and that it was intended to provide for cases in which suitable persons for those positions could not be found in the lower grades. The determination of such fact in each case is left to the heads of the respective departments. But it cannot be reasonably maintained that the rules authorize the heads of departments to avail themselves of this exception for political purposes, or that they are justified in expanding it into a general rule. The purpose of an exception is to provide for particular cases, and not to abrogate the rule itself.

When the new Administration came into power this door was open, although it had not been used. This gave an opportunity either to amend the rules so as to insure a more extended operation of the law, or to take advantage of this serious mistake and bestow those important positions upon inexperienced and untrained men for partisan reasons. In view of the fact that the new Administration had deemed it expedient in nearly all cases to place inexperienced men at the head of the various bureaus, its course in this matter was especially important. What would be thought of a new and inexperienced superintendent of a machine shop who should remove all or nearly all the skilled foremen employed therein, and place men who had not learned the trade in charge of the workmen? Yet the experience and special training which are necessary to the proper discharge of the duties of chiefs of division in the public offices, are quite as necessary and important as the skill which is regarded by all as indispensable in the case of a foreman of mechanics; and the interests involved are in many cases far more extensive.

Among the clerks in every Government office there are a few intelligent men who, even under the spoils system, have by chance found their way into public employment. By diligent application and study these men have especially fitted themselves for the various functions of official duty in their respective offices. To accomplish this they have often gone outside of and beyond official requirements, and have made themselves masters of the principles and details of every branch of their work. To these clerks the positions of chiefs of division are the goal of official life, the highest places to which, without political influence or exceptional circumstances, they can reasonably hope to attain. To them in every

sense those positions are justly due. They are qualified for them by their unrivalled fitness, acquired by special and generally self-imposed training; and the public interest in the correct, proper, and intelligent performance of the business of the departments requires their services. Some consideration is also due to the fact that the special knowledge acquired through long years of service in the public employment is in all but a few instances of no value outside of a Government office, and that by the severance of all relations with the business classes of the community the clerks and chiefs of division in the departments become in great measure disqualified for private employment, and lose the usual means of obtaining it.

Under the present Administration these facts and considerations seem to be non-existent, and these pivotal positions in the various public offices are being spoliated by the disappointed politicians whom the President has turned away. The exception of this important class of minor offices from examination was in itself a grave mistake; but the interpretation which has been given to it, which practically takes these offices out of the classified service, must be regarded by all who are interested in the extension of the system as a serious reverse.

The inadequacy of the existing Civil-Service Law (restricted as it now is to clerks and employees), to the purpose of removing the corrupting tendencies of political patronage from the public service, is apparent from every point of view. To survey the whole field within the limited space which can be given to the subject is impracticable. The need of a further extension of the system, however, may be illustrated by a single branch of one of the executive departments. The branch referred to is that which embraces the accounting offices of the Treasury, the principal officers of which are the six auditors and the three controllers. These officers are the main safeguard provided by law against illegal and fraudulent depredations upon the Treasury. They audit the total revenues and disbursements of the Government. All claims against the United States, and all accounts of public officers and agents, are adjusted and settled by them. During the ten years ending with 1884 the net ordinary expenditures of the Government exceeded an average of \$170,000,000 a year. The items comprised in the vast aggregate of claims and accounts submitted to the accounting officers for allowance are supported solely by *ex-parte* evidence. Those officers decide upon the sufficiency of that evidence, construe the law relating to each case, and allow or reject any item, upon the presentation made by the officers and claimants, or their attorneys, without the aid of opposing counsel, and in general without any means of securing evidence of adverse facts. Moreover, their decisions, when against the United States, are final and conclusive. A claimant against whom a decision is made may bring an action in the Court of Claims, or he may apply to Congress for relief. But if an excessive or illegal demand against the United States is allowed, even though supported by no evidence whatever, there is no provision for repeal or practical mode of revision.

Such is the unmeasured power which is vested in those officers. Their public duty is equally great. They are charged with the responsibility of executing this trust with fidelity to the United States and with justice to its citizens. While not obstructing any just and valid demand, it is their undoubted duty to protect the Treasury by rejecting all illegal and doubtful claims, and by disallowing all items of expenditure which are not clearly authorized by law and supported by proper and sufficient evidence. Yet the keys of the Treasury vaults are in their hands, and they

may turn them carelessly. Many of these claims and demands are urged upon the accounting officers by Senators and Representatives (who act as general claim-agents for their constituents), and by other public men. This is more likely to be the case with claims of a doubtful character, for such alone need extraneous aid. Yet, under the patronage system, it is at the will of members of Congress, or at least in dread of their power, that the accounting officers hold their positions and draw their salaries. Thus the promptings of personal interest tacitly urge them to secure the aid of those powerful allies, and of those who are supposed to have influence with them. Is it wise to establish such relations? Is it right to subject public officers to such perilous conditions? The corrupting tendencies of such a system are manifest; a few officers, independent, self-reliant, unyielding, resist their encroachment, but the strain is too great for the average product of a political campaign.

It is not intended to imply that the accounting officers have in general been venal or mercenary; on the contrary, the cases in which fraud has been perpetrated upon the Treasury by means of collusion with or bribery of those officers have been of rare occurrence. It has been in the lax and latitudinarian construction of law in favor of pressing claimants, and in the non-enforcement of provisions enacted for the purpose of protecting the Treasury and preventing the misapplication and illegal expenditure of the public moneys, that their administration has been open to censure. The prevailing evil which has vitiated their functions has been simply the want of moral strength and courage to withstand the powerful extraneous pressure to which they have been subjected. The persistent force of those influences has heretofore gradually encroached upon the judicial functions of those officers, until the barriers provided by law for the protection of the Treasury have been in great measure broken down.

The time will come, ought to have come now, when the interference of members of Congress with the duties of those and other executive officers will be resented as an affront. But this will not be till such officers hold their positions by a tenure which does not extinguish their independence, sense of honor, self-respect, and manhood.

In dealing with the civil-service problem it must be borne in mind that whatever course is adopted will be open to strong objections. Ideal perfection is not to be attained in practical affairs. On the one hand, there is the objection that any restriction of the appointing power will sometimes prevent the selection of those possessing the highest and best qualifications; on the other, if appointments are left to the unrestrained discretion of the appointing power, there is danger that it will become corrupted and vitiated by abuse. This is, in fact, the condition which meets us now. No perfect elimination of both of these objections appears possible. The best practical result which can be hoped for is one which avoids these evils in the greater measure. This a carefully devised competitive system ought to do. In what respect the present law fails to accomplish this result may be briefly indicated.

As contended above, the application of the present law is too greatly restricted. To secure its benefits where they are most needed, heads of bureaus and chiefs of divisions should be placed within its protection; and to accomplish the broad and general results at which the system aims, the classified service should embrace all executive officers and employees above the grade of messengers and below the Cabinet and foreign ministers. Some special exceptions, as of confidential and fiduciary officers, would be necessary and proper. In such an extension of the

system it is not proposed that the higher officers, such for example as heads of bureaus, should be selected by competitive examination. Such a method is obviously inadequate for the ascertainment of the higher qualifications which are appropriate to those positions. It is expedient, however, that such examinations should be applied to all grades below that of chiefs of division in the departments at Washington, and to corresponding grades in other branches of the service; and that original appointments should be restricted to the lowest grade in each group of positions. To complete this system, selections for the higher offices should be made only from those branches of the classified service within which they are respectively classed, and all recommendations for promotion, except of an official character, should be prohibited under penalty. To adapt the examinations to such an object their character would probably need to be raised to a higher standard, the subjects of examination extended, a higher minimum of rating fixed for admission to the service, and the probationary test more carefully and thoroughly applied.

It is not claimed that under such a system of appointment the best qualified officers would always be secured for every position. But it is believed that egregious unfitness would never enter; that the average attainments and efficiency of public officers would be higher; that experienced and trained men, having a special knowledge of their duties, would always be secured; and that the corrupting and degenerating influences which now infest the public service in every quarter, with their endless train of evils, would be almost entirely eliminated.

N. H. THOMPSON.

THE TORY POLICY.

LONDON, July 25.

THE Tory Ministry has now had about three weeks of Parliament to show the quality of its principles and its men. As that period has been mainly occupied by getting the estimates voted in Committee of Supply, and as the discussion of these raises few questions of wide political interest, and gives little opportunity for the display of statesmanlike or oratorical ability, the data for judging of the personal gifts of our new officials are still incomplete. But there are several large questions of policy on which the Cabinet has had to declare itself. Some of these relate to foreign affairs. The Tories in opposition were never tired of denouncing the weakness and vacillation of Mr. Gladstone's Cabinet in Egypt and Sudan, and they condemned it scarcely less for yielding to Russia in the question of the Afghan frontier. Their own line on these matters has therefore been looked for with curiosity. So far it has been one of prudent reticence. They have asked for time to confer with their representatives at the different courts of Europe and in Egypt itself on the Egyptian problem before expressing their intention, and this reasonable request could not be refused. They have given no sign of an intention to resume the offensive on the Upper Nile or the Red Sea Coast; and if it be true, as we now hear, that the Mahdi is dead, there will be the less reason for spending money on a forward movement which would be unpopular in England. As regards Russia, it is understood that Lord Salisbury proposes to carry out the arrangement settled in outline by Lord Granville before he quitted office. The violence of his language, and that of Lord R. Churchill, regarding the Russian Government, has naturally made the relations of the Czar with the present Ministry less friendly than they were with Mr. Gladstone's Ministry; but Lord Salisbury may be

expected to wish to remove these grounds of coldness. There is no wish in England for a quarrel. The Tories doubtless dislike and suspect Russia, but their strong language about her lately was even more due to their dislike of Mr. Gladstone; and being now on their good behavior, being a Ministry on sufferance, tolerated by a hostile majority in Parliament, and most anxious to deserve success at the general election, they are unlikely to venture on a course which would unloose all the tongues whose invective drove Lord Beaconsfield from power in 1880. A Liberal Government is now more likely to be tempted to make war than a Tory one, because the people, believing that the former wish to avoid war, are disposed to believe that any war they engage in must be just and necessary, whereas the Tories, who have a bellicose record, are suspected of seeking opportunities to fight whether or no justice and necessity are on their side. Hence, the present Cabinet, which realizes the view the country takes of it, is not likely to deliberately pick a quarrel with Russia or any one else. If it does get into hostilities, which at present we do not expect, the blame will be either with Russia, where the war party is still strong, or with that precipitancy which marks Lord Salisbury's character, and which may betray him into some step whence an honorable retreat will be difficult.

On the whole, therefore, it may be said that the transfer of power from Liberals to Tories has not yet openly told on the foreign policy of England. In domestic affairs, however, we have witnessed an interesting development. The late Government was, when it fell, on the point of breaking up over the question of coercive measures in Ireland. It had earned the bitter hatred of the Nationalists, first by Mr. Forster's Coercion Act of 1881, next by Sir William Harcourt's Crimes Act of 1882. The Tory party had, through its representatives in Parliament, in the press, in society, called loudly for both these measures, and indeed went far beyond the Government in seeking to press them through in the most drastic form. During the earlier part of this session all the Irish Tories, and the great majority of the English Tories, too, held the same language, insisting that Mr. Gladstone's Cabinet should renew the expiring Crimes Act, taunting it with fearing Mr. Parnell, and warning it that if disorder reappeared in Ireland, on its shoulders would lie the blame. Partly under this pressure, but chiefly in deference to Lord Spencer's views, the majority of the Gladstone Cabinet had resolved to propose the reënactment of a part of the Crimes Act, though when the fatal 8th of June turned that Cabinet out, some of its members had not yet assented.

When Lord Salisbury undertook to form a Ministry, and asked assurances from Mr. Gladstone as to support in carrying through the remaining business of the session, it was generally supposed that he would ask to be supported in passing an Irish Crimes Act. However, he did not do so. This startled the Tory party. But how much greater was their astonishment when, so far from excusing themselves for not bringing in a Crimes Act because the session was far advanced, and it would have been difficult to pass it against Irish obstruction, the Tory Ministry denounced coercive measures in a high and righteous tone, declaring that this was not the way to treat Ireland, and that they would avoid instead of imitating the policy of their predecessors—that very policy which they had heretofore complained of for being too weak and lenient.

People had scarcely recovered from the shock of this splendid audacity when another display of it came upon them. Just a week ago Mr. Parnell moved for an inquiry into a number of

criminal trials in Ireland, seeking to reopen the question whether certain persons convicted under Lord Spencer's Government had been rightly convicted. When a similar motion was made some months ago, the Tories, and especially Messrs. Gibson and Plunket, the two able leaders of the Irish Tories, joined the then Liberal Government in resisting it, and joined also in the Ministerial declaration that nothing could do more to shake the administration of justice in Ireland than the granting of such inquiries, which would be practically informal retrials of cases already tried and determined in the regular way of law. Now, however, the Chancellor of the Exchequer, Sir M. Hicks-Beach, while not openly conceding Mr. Parnell's demand, suggested that the present Lord Lieutenant, Lord Carnarvon, should be applied to on the subject, while Lord R. Churchill, now Secretary of State for India, absolutely repudiated Lord Spencer's policy, and declared that the present Ministry would take a new line of their own, and not defend anything done by their predecessors. This conduct has made perfectly clear to the country, what was long ago known by those who have watched the House of Commons, that an understanding subsists between certain leaders of the Tory party and the Irish Nationalists. It was by Nationalist as well as by Tory votes that Mr. Gladstone's Ministry was defeated on the Bradlaugh question, left with a majority of fourteen only last February in the debate on the Egyptian vote of censure, and finally and fatally overthrown on the 8th of June. Lord R. Churchill is credited with having chiefly created and worked this understanding, and is now believed to be the person in whose hands the *ménagement* of the Irish party is left. It is not easy to maintain, for some of the demands of the Nationalists are such as no Government, not to say a Tory Government, can well grant. But apparently the present compact or understanding, whatever one is to call it, will last till and over the general election.

It might be supposed that, whatever the Tory Ministry may gain from the help of Nationalist members, it would lose as much or more by the alienation of its English and Irish supporters. Some few of these have spoken out their minds pretty freely. But there is an extraordinary cohesiveness in the Tory party. Shocks which would split the Liberals do not affect its solid mass. It murmurs, but it does not revolt. And the class of Conservatives which most dislikes this coquetting with Mr. Parnell is also the class which most hates Mr. Gladstone, so that when the pinch comes it is sure to vote against him.

Hardly less significant than their treatment of the Irish question has been the conduct of the present Ministry in the removal of the rule which disqualifies from the electoral suffrage persons in receipt of medical relief. In a former letter I referred to the earlier phases of this question, in itself a small matter, but one which has figured largely in the present session. When a Liberal member proposed in May last that this disqualification should be removed, the Liberal Government opposed him, and the then Attorney-General insisted on the necessity for maintaining a provision of such wholesome economic effect. The proposal was defeated, but being again brought on some days later, was carried against the Government. In the House of Lords, however, the Tory party threw it out, and, the House of Commons having assented, it was believed that the matter was disposed of. However, some prominent Radicals, who feared that a good many agricultural laborers would be disqualified by the rule, and who saw in the action of the House of Lords a good ground for attacking that chamber, began to agitate the question, and when the Tory Ministry

came in, assailed it with demands that facilities should be given for a new bill they had brought in to extinguish the disqualification. To the equal astonishment of the Radicals and of their own followers, the Salisbury Cabinet declared they would take up the question themselves, and they brought in a bill accordingly which went much further than the Radicals' bill, since it removed the disqualification forever (the Radicals' bill had done so for two years only), and removed it as respects school-board and municipal as well as Parliamentary elections. Here indeed was a bid for popularity, an attempt to overtrump the Radical cards. But the ex-Liberal Ministers were not behind their opponents. The ex-Attorney-General, who had strongly opposed the proposition in May last, now went right round and advocated it; the ex-Home Secretary blessed it, argued for it, and tried to push it further, although the Gladstone Cabinet had resisted it so lately. The rank and file on both sides followed their leaders (though many on the Tory side mistrust the consequences), and the only opposition came from Mr. Pell, the old and doughty champion of strict poor-law administration, and a mere handful of members, economic Liberals and recalcitrant Tories. Nothing could show more clearly how much the sense of responsibility deserts a dying Parliament and its leaders, than the readiness of these leaders to throw over their past votes and speeches if by so doing they can win a little more popular favor at the elections.

Y.

A BULL IN A CHINA SHOP.

LONDON, July 23, 1885.

THE recent revelations of London morality by the *Pull Mall Gazette* have, apparently, excited sufficient attention in America to make a more comprehensive statement of the recent doings and position of that journal interesting to your American readers, the more as the revolutionary attitude it has taken may be more or less directly attributed to the example and influence of American journalism. This revolt from all the traditions of the English press, and the introduction of the sensational resources of the transatlantic press into a daily journal possessed of all the prestige of the highest degree of respectability, the quondam organ of the clubs, and journal of the gentlemen of the metropolis, dates from the entry into the functions of editor-in-chief of Mr. Stead, who, when the *Gazette* became the property of the present owner, Mr. Thompson (son-in-law of one of the firm which formerly owned the paper, Smith, Elder & Co.), came to London from the North of England, where he had acquired a distinct reputation as editor of a fiery Radical and outspoken little daily, the *Northern Echo*, to assume under John Morley the sub-editorship of the *Gazette*, which then became distinctly a Radical organ. Mr. Morley's direction brought the paper (*me jure*, and speaking from a fifteen years' or more knowledge of it) to its highest point of ability and literary dignity; and when he left it to take his Parliamentary work in entire earnest, Mr. Stead came, by a natural and merited recognition, to the chair of editor-in-chief. The paper at once became more Radical, more refractory, and more audacious in its insistence on the privileges of the press and its agitating initiative. The solidity and decorum of the London press were for the first time broken by the introduction of the interviewer, and the opinions of all the social and artistic and literary personalities on all agitating and attractive topics, among the official utterances of the paper. Everybody whose ideas and sayings could be of interest to the public on every side of every exciting question, was brought into the service of the paper in signed or anonymous communications, and the tone of the paper be-

came that of vigorous and quite independent, sometimes irresponsible, personality. This was the very antithesis of the system by which, modelling itself always on the *Times*, the London daily press has made itself a mystery of grave, respectable, and inscrutable anonymity—a quality which makes the *Times*, with its prestige and antiquity, a power in the State, but which in its imitators resulted in a generally dull and often pointless partisanship, unindividual, indestructive, except as labelled Tory, Liberal, etc., etc.

This press was shocked and scandalized by the new departure of the *Pull Mall Gazette*, whose absolute independence of any official or party control soon made it *persona ingrata* to the greater part of the official, semi-official, and social-official world of London. The paper was in various quiet ways tabooed, and the principal newsagency in England, that of Mr. Smith, Conservative Minister in this and the former Conservative Administrations, followed a persistent scheme of pushing it in the background in practice, by putting it on sale at all his stands somewhat later than the other evening journals. (Since its last sensational enterprise this has been followed by absolute exclusion from the service of all Mr. Smith's stalls and agencies.) The *Pull Mall Gazette* became a journal too lively for the quiet of English conservatism, and it has been meeting a gradually increasing open hostility, at bottom I believe partisan, but carrying the colors of morality and patriotism. The campaign of the *Gazette* on the state of the navy found too many supporters in the solid men of both parties to permit effective attack on that score; that in behalf of Gordon found abundant justification in popular sympathy, and was above all justified by success; but the open advocacy of the Russian side in the early Afghan complication was so unpopular and so unflinching that the paper was for a certain time considered to have ruined itself. Its circulation sank to a fraction of what it had previously been, and its popularity was at the lowest possible point. The general public in England admit no question of the country being always right; and even if not so in the abstract, it is so in the sense that it must be supported, and that no patriotic Englishman can ever admit any qualification to this end. To maintain that the other side in any international dispute cannot be right, is a form of patriotism not peculiar to England, but the *Pull Mall Gazette* faced this feeling with a steadiness and courage rare in journalism, and I believe that now reasonable people in England generally admit that it was right, and that the Russians were not the wanton aggressors which most people (myself included) believed them to be. The animosity shown the *Gazette* during this crisis surpassed anything I know in English politics—not in intensity, in which respect the fervor of the Conservatives against Gladstone in the Bulgarian times somewhat surpassed it—but in extent. It was generally asserted, and believed, that the editor and owner of the paper were sold to the Russian Government, and the sum paid was even mentioned—£10,000 had been given in a lump sum to Mr. Thompson, and practically M. Lessar and Mme. Novikoff edited the paper. Of course no one who knew Mr. Thompson credited it for one honest moment, or that he was a man to derive any advantage from an unpatriotic action; but the men who sell arms and powder to the open enemies of England could the least believe in the honesty of the *Pull Mall Gazette*.

Nor is the case of Mr. Stead different. I had in times gone by the pleasure of knowing that gentleman, and, although I often differ widely from him in opinion, and (as he is a little intolerant of differences of that kind) we have not met

lately, I have the utmost confidence in saying that he is an absolutely honest and intensely patriotic man, incapable of adopting for any personal advantage a course at variance with what he believes to be for the true interest of England. But ever since I have known anything of his course, he has been a friend of Russia and a believer in the sound policy of a Russo-English understanding on the Eastern question. As the only daily metropolitan paper that dared take that side of the question, it was favored with the most explicit and fullest information of the views of the Russian Government, and if the paper was wrong, it was honestly advocating the course it believed to be the best one for the country. This I now believe to be the opinion of the men whose good opinion is best worth having in politics, if not of the public generally. Except the confirmed Russophobes and the army and navy, I do not believe that there is any considerable number of publicists who now regret the heat of the *Pull Mall Gazette* in combating what, but for its antagonism, might have been a most disastrous drift of public opinion.

As the journal in question and its editor are likely to figure more importantly in the future politics of England, it will be just as well to understand them. The readers of the *Northern Echo* under Mr. Stead will recognize in the *Pull Mall Gazette* the same traits in a wider sphere—a narrow but direct and unflinching view of public questions; a provincial unconventionalism and contempt for the conventions of metropolitan journalism; uncompromising adherence to the editor's personal views in despite, or even contempt, of all party considerations or advantages; puritanical vigor in questions of morality, and as nearly inflexible independence of views on all questions as is possible to the editor of a paper owned by another person. Add to this a north-country energy and obstinacy and brusqueness, and a very shrewd eye to business in the function of journalist, a sensational vein, and some other qualities of popular American journalism, and (in the opinion of many critics) a want of responsibility, but which seems to me rather an honest, even if overweening, sense of the importance of his own views, which is more or less the consequence of a provincial career and the want of the broadening effect of metropolitan life and labor—and you have what I think enough to explain all the evolutions of the *Pull Mall Gazette* under its present management. Inflexible honesty, sincere patriotism, puritanical morality, and extreme obstinacy, I am entirely convinced, lie at the bottom of any mistakes the present editor of the *Gazette* may have committed.

These traits will explain the late crusade against sexual crime which the *Nation* seems to me to misjudge, although I was, to be honest, of the same opinion at first, as well as disposed to believe that the *Gazette* had ruined itself. Public opinion was aghast, shocked, and utterly disconcerted; even moral and crusading people were dismayed at the sensational way in which the matter was opened, and enormous evil was predicted as the consequence of such brutally frank exposures. Many still remain of the opinion that, in form, the articles were unfortunately realistic, and likely to do great harm by exciting vicious tendencies. I was of this opinion, but I cannot maintain it. The object of the *Gazette* was to effect a reform in monstrous abuses well known to exist, but which this very fear of shocking public propriety has hitherto prevented the right-minded people who knew of them from agitating against. When we know that the House of Lords had been in possession of the facts for four years, but that the Commons had blocked all interference, we need not have hoped for any

good from the kind of agitation which would have pleased the Lower House and the class it is chosen from. It was necessary to go right to the sense of the masses, and especially the lower middle classes, to produce an agitation which should move the upper strata; and whether it was a sublime sagacity or a lucky hit which led to the result, is of no consequence: the effect is that the nation is moved as it has never been moved in this generation. This is in part due to the vivid and sensational way in which the whole thing has been presented. I am inclined to think that Mr. Stead knew his public perfectly, and made his attack precisely in the most vulnerable point, in entire recognition of the needs of the case, and that a decorous statement of it would have hit nobody who could be moved.

The agitators in our early anti-slavery days would not fail to recognize the proprieties of this juncture, which are not to be confounded with social propriety. I remember some such very plain talking about the abuses of our slavery, and I do not see that it was blamable. I think the event will show the same in this case. I will not say that all the good or pure men of England applaud the *Gazette*, but I have little hesitation in saying that every man who has strongly at heart the morality of the English people is by this time in accord with its action in this campaign. It is impossible for people in America to understand how deeply the really moral heart of England is moved. There is in the lowest class of English people an awful immorality, due to individuals of the upper classes mainly, which weighs on the consciences of all true reformers; and this midday exposé of the broad and thronged road by which this immorality is kept up and the moral sense of the lowest classes destroyed, has set us face to face with an army of skeletons in our own houses. I do not see how any permanent or real harm can have been done by the exposé, any more than in the similar case with American slavery; and the more I examine the evil, the smaller it seems. I feel convinced that it is the beginning of a great and beneficent reform in England, mainly by the strengthening of the various societies for moral reform, which have been keeping up an agitation feeble for want of fuel which the *Gazette* has now given it. One thing I take to be sure—no one who has any discrimination in the signs of the times will openly attack or impede the crusade the *Gazette* has opened. It is now a part of English history, and I cannot respect the judgment or the feelings of the Englishman who sneers at it. I could show on one page of the last crowned book of the French Academy, 'Cruelle Enigme,' more filth and poison than there is in all the *Gazette's* articles. The latter I would not allow my daughters to read simply because I should not like them to know that humanity could be so vile; the former I should put on the Index as superlative and superfluous stimulus to sexual vice. Yet I do not know that the moral W. H. Smith, Rt. Hon. and Minister of her Majesty, has excluded from his stalls at the stations any one of the volumes of corruption which French literature is pouring on us. Prudery is pardonable and may be honest, but not when *doublée* with hypocrisy. W.

TOLSTOI'S NEW NOVEL.

PARIS, June 16.

THE success of Tolstoi's 'Guerre et Paix' has been very great among that class of the public which has not been totally depraved by the coarse vulgarity of some of our novel writers. The great book of the Russian novelist was almost a revelation: not only did it show us a new world, almost unknown—it was the type of a new literary method, which could not be compared to anything we knew. It is not to be won-

dered at if there was much curiosity felt when 'Anna Karénine' came out in a French translation. Our Russian friends said to us: "You admire 'Guerre et Paix'; wait till you read 'Anna Karénine.'" They consider this novel Tolstoi's masterpiece. I cannot, I may as well say at once, agree with this opinion. Is it because 'Guerre et Paix' was the first I read, and because it gave me sensations and emotions which novelty alone can give? I do not think so. There is in 'Guerre et Paix' a heroic part which is wanting in 'Anna Karénine.' The element of war infuses color into the first of the two novels, and gives it an extraordinary originality. The invasion of Russia—Borodino—the burning of Moscow—the retreat and the destruction of the French army—the quietness of the steppe and of the old châteaux of the Russian nobility disturbed by the roar of cannon, by the tramping of huge armies—Napoleon, Alexander, Kutuzoff, appearing here and there in the midst of their armies—what a *cadre*, as the French say, for a picture of human passions! And the picture is as fine as the *cadre* itself. There is no discordance, no incongruity felt; a human heart, full of passion, is a world in itself, and its tempests are comparable to the greatest tempests of nature, or those other tempests which we call wars. History must always be summed up in the struggle of a few individual wills; and these wills are more often led by instinct, by blind forces, than by reason and fixed purpose. The element of fatality is found in history as it is in the development of a woman or of a child—the terrible curse, the weight of past ages, the law of heredity. Religion as well as science struggles incessantly with the awful problems which are hidden in the enigmatic phrase "original sin."

'Anna Karénine' is purely a novel, and a Russian novel. But it is not a novel in the ordinary sense of the word; there is, so to speak, no story. It is not the development of a certain plot, with a beginning, a middle, and an end; it is rather a succession of pictures, of scenes, some of which seem hardly to have any connection with the principal scenes. Such is Tolstoi's manner, so far as he has a manner. He paints life such as it is, sometimes solemn and sometimes dull; tragical and commonplace—light and shadow constantly intermingled. His actors are numerous, their name is legion. The heroes and heroines are not always alone on the stage; they are constantly drawn among people who care nothing or who care little for their passions, their preoccupations. They move in a real atmosphere of dullness, of banality, of vulgarity, of levity, of indifference. It would seem as if the interest we took in them would be diminished by this juxtaposition or interposition; it is not so. On the contrary, the contrast between the tragical elements of life and the comical or dull elements increases our interest. Tolstoi shows us life as it really is, with its complexities, its necessary tedium, its trivialities. He does not deceive us: his finest characters have their weak points; he knows that perfection is not human. It would be an impossible task to give a suitable account of 'Anna Karénine,' considered as a novel. We must go a little beneath the surface, and try to find out if Tolstoi had an object in this extraordinary delineation of human life. He does not belong to the school of writers who let you know at once what their aim is, and where they are leading you; still, it seems as if he had been thinking of contrasting love, considered in its domestic aspects—legal love, if I may say so—observed in the family life, under common, ordinary, provincial circumstances; and love, as an uncontrollable passion—wild, lawless, destructive of the family affections and ties, of all social rules.

We have in 'Anna Karénine' two couples.

One is Lévine and his wife Kitty, who married for love, and the husband remains a lover. Kitty is very charming, very feminine, very pure; Lévine is very good, very ordinary, very weak, jealous when he has not the slightest occasion to be jealous. He is an honest gentleman-farmer, timid, awkward; he detests St. Petersburg and society; he is fond of his country-house, his peasants, his dogs, his horses. He writes a book on agriculture which he will never finish. He is a warm friend, a good neighbor, a capital shot. Tolstoi makes you positively see him, and you feel at the end of the book as if you had always known him, and gone with him after woodcock, and heard him and Kitty discuss small domestic matters. They are happy, and their troubles are only like the small clouds that float a moment in a summer's sky and are soon absorbed by the warm rays of the sun.

It is not so with Anna Karénine. She is married to a high functionary, a slave of official duties, respectable, hard-working, a rising statesman, a type of the class which is produced by the Russian *tsarina*. But Anna is lawless: she is one of the born rebels of the world. She admires, she even likes her husband—she cannot love him; and she loves another man, a handsome, spirited, fashionable young officer named Vronsky. Fatality draws her to him, and he belongs to that class of men who may be said to recognize no duties except to themselves, no obedience except to their own desires and passions. He is a man without a conscience. He has principles, or says that he has; but these principles are totally at variance with those of Lévine. They allow him, I would almost say they force him, to despise the laws of matrimony, the bonds of friendship. He only submits to the world; but his world allows much, and he is determined to profit largely by its indulgence. He is not exactly the bold villain, the bandit, the outlaw, who has long been made prominent in literature. He is the correct man of the world, who pays his gambling debts at the appointed time; he is a brave, even a brilliant soldier, an accomplished courtier; but his code of morals is not inspired by any higher law. He is eminently and essentially selfish, and knows no God but his own will.

Anna Karénine is above him: she has a soul; she can feel commiseration and pity. She was made for good, not for evil; but her fate has tied her to a husband who does not satisfy the cravings of her imagination and her heart. She falls into the hands of Vronsky, like a bird fascinated by a serpent. When she feels herself, to her surprise and almost to her horror, in love, she tries to escape. The description of her feelings in the train which takes her away is very admirable: the tortures of a diseased mind have never been painted with more truth. She feels so agitated that, at one of the stations on the road, she goes out on the platform, though the night is cold and tempestuous:

"The wind was blowing with rage through the wheels, round the axles, covering carriages and men with snow. People were running here and there, opening and shutting the great doors, talking gayly, while the snow cracked under their feet. . . . 'Send the despatch,' said an irritated voice from the other side of the railway. Two gentlemen, with cigarettes in their mouths, passed by Anna. She was on the point of remounting into the carriage, after having breathed a vast supply of fresh air. She had already taken her hand out of her muff, when the vacillating light from the lamp-post was cut off from her by a man in a military coat who approached her. It was Vronsky; she knew him at once. . . .

"It was useless to ask why he was there; she knew as well as if he had said he was only there to see her.

"I did not know that you were on the way to Petersburg. Why do you go there?" she asked, letting her hand fall, while an irrepressible joy lighted her visage.

"Why do I go?" said he, looking fixedly at

her. "You know I go only in order to be where you are; I cannot do otherwise."

"At this moment the wind, as if it had conquered all obstacles, blew the snow off the roof of the carriages and shook triumphantly a piece of sheet-iron which it had detached; the engine uttered a plaintive sound. Never had the horror of the tempest seemed so fine to Anna. She had just heard the words which her reason had feared and her heart desired."

This passage is not a bad specimen of Tolstoi's manner. Anna is drawn by degrees into the vortex of passion. She is not a hypocrite; she has not the quiet assurance of a Parisienne, who can go through life leading with the same hand and by the same string husband and lovers. She is a creature of impulse; and when, one fine day, after a steeple-chase in which Vronsky falls with his horse and is thought for a moment to be dead, Anna is reproved by her husband for having shown too violent an interest in him in the presence of too many people, she throws off the mask. "'No, you are not mistaken,' said she to him slowly, casting at the same time a look of despair on the impassive face of her husband. 'You are not mistaken. I have been in despair, and I am still. I hear you, and I think only of him. I love him: I am his mistress. I cannot bear you: I fear you, I hate you. Do with me what you will.'"

As soon as Anna has sinned, the expiation begins. She begins almost at once to hate the cause of her sin. She hates him first unconsciously, and by degrees she is brought to hate him consciously. Vronsky, in his turn, first loves his victim, and then becomes tired of her. They try everything—a palace at Venice, country life on one of Vronsky's estates; they try St. Petersburg again. Alas! nothing will do. The world makes them feel that they must remain everything to each other, and they are no longer everything to each other. What was to be a paradise becomes an inferno. Anna was too bold when she left husband and child and defied society. She is not bold enough to make herself an "æa triplex circum pectus," and to impose herself again on society. She has the Slavic impetuosity and the Slavic weakness. She is bad, but she is not bad enough. She tortures herself; she bears her fatal love like a cross; and when she finally can fathom the selfishness of Vronsky, when she sees through the man who has destroyed the whole equilibrium of her existence, she feels like a child who must escape from some cruel, brutal tyrant. She runs away, hardly knowing where she goes. She met Vronsky on the railway on a fatal night; he is not there now. The dark, brutal engine, more insensible than even the heart of a villain, is there. She throws herself at the feet of the iron monster: she cannot suffer any more; the monster touches her, and she dies.

Correspondence.

WHAT IS THEOSOPHY?

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In your issue of July 23, in an article entitled "The Purpose of Theosophy," quoting Mrs. Sinnett's questions, "What does this Divine wisdom really consist of? whence comes it? by whom has it been taught, and for what purpose?" you say, "It is precisely to these questions that clear and accurate answers are essential."

If the *Nation* really wants "clear and accurate answers" to these questions, such I will engage to give, or will in my official capacity cause to be given by a competent member of the Theosophical Society.

I will tell you beforehand what Theosophy is not. It is not a flea that you can put your finger on.—Very truly yours,

F. T. S.

1726 N STREET, WASHINGTON, D. C.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I enclose a circular which I, and I suppose my fellow-members of the American Society for Psychical Research, have received. The document appears to me equally amusing and impudent, and perhaps worthy to be printed in your columns for the entertainment of your readers. Our Psychical Society has never published anything, nor has the only investigation so far completed yet been printed, the first report being now in press. The supposition that our results need to be "supervised" is a gratuitous assumption made in ignorance. In spite of this (according to the above-mentioned circular), the American Board of Control of the Theosophical Society votes to assume and proceed to exercise supervision of our Society through an officially appointed censor—Dr. Elliott Coues. It then further resolves to send its threats—for such their tone makes its expressions—to every member and associate of our society. I know nothing concerning the Theosophical Society of America, but it is difficult not to connect their resolution with a desire to forestall any discoveries or reports of the Psychical Society which may interfere with the shadowy tenets of the theosophists. This seems the more probable explanation since a recent report of the English Society for Psychical Research has been printed, though not published, which maintains that a large part of the evidence upon which the theosophists had put their faith was fraudulent. Under these circumstances one cannot but suspect that their tone of confident superiority is assumed to conceal a fear of further exposures which might blight their existence.

Of course the Psychical Society will be very glad to have the benefit of any good criticisms upon its work, but it may be fairly doubted whether the Theosophical Society, whose reputation is under a cloud, will afford us much advantage by placing us under the censorship of one gentleman, and moreover one whose work, as far as the public knows it, has been principally in the domain of systematic zoölogy. Psychical research requires profound mathematical knowledge, a mastery of physiology, philosophy, psychology, and physics, and an immense allowance of common-sense. The Society exists to associate for its investigations gentlemen who collectively represent these factors. Can one person adequately criticise all the aspects of such researches?—I remain, dear sir, yours very respectfully,

CHARLES S. MINOT.

25 MT. VERNON ST., BOSTON, July 27, 1885.

THE CATTLE BUSINESS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I was wondering at the correctness of your review, in your issue of July 2, when Mr. Poitevin demurred, in yours of 16th. He makes some statements of the advantages of the "Western plains" to which I demur.

He says "the rainfall is extending gradually, but rapidly," in southwestern Kansas. As he fails to locate southwestern Kansas any more accurately, it is a little difficult to tell just what he means. Dodge City is almost on the 100° of longitude, and is nearly 120 miles, in a direct line, from the west boundary of the State. At this point the United States Government has maintained a signal station, beginning with 1875. The query would not be out of place, What does the record at that station show as to rainfall? The record lies before me, and it shows these facts: For the ten years, 1875 and 1884 inclusive, the average rainfall was 21.1 inches; the years exceeding the average are 1877, 1881, 1883, and 1884, and the greatest fall of any year was in 1881.

The next query which naturally arises is, How

does this record compare with that kept elsewhere in eastern Kansas? There lies before me the printed record kept by Professor Snow, of the State University, and from it I find that the average rainfall at Lawrence, forty miles west of Kansas City, has been, for the years 1868 to 1884 inclusive, 35.18 inches. The most disastrous year to the farmer from drought, during this period, was 1874, and that year the rainfall was 28.87 inches, or a little more than 7½ inches more than the average fall of rain at Dodge City for the past ten years. When it is remembered that less than six inches is the highest increase of rainfall claimed for eastern Kansas during the past thirty years or more, it will be seen that a similar increase for southwestern Kansas will still leave the average rainfall there a little less than the disastrously dry year of 1874 was in eastern Kansas.

These records seem to prove Mr. Poitevin's statement, quoted above, fallacious.

This year, 1885, has been more abundant in rain, or seasonable rains, in southwestern Kansas than last year; but the snowfall in that section last winter was the heaviest by far known to the oldest settlers, and it left the ground in less need of rain this spring. The summer thus far has been cooler, as was the spring, than the average; hence the soil out there has been every way more propitious for the farmer.

Mr. Poitevin builds an argument on the fact that settlers "consider the land and the conditions favorable to agriculture"; but a slight glance at the history of western Kansas raises a doubt of the wisdom of such settlement. The writer has lived in Kansas for twenty-nine years. In 1874 the settlement seceded from western Kansas, to again return in 1877 and 1878. In these years the railways advertised the large crops of 1876 and 1877, and advertised their lands; and, as a result, the tide of settlement rolled up almost to the extreme western boundary of the State. But 1879 and 1880 were dry years out there, the record at Dodge City being for the two years a rainfall of 15.43 and 18.12 inches, and the lands were in the main deserted. Congress was appealed to for relief, and passed a bill, the provisions of which but very few claimed. The Santa Fé Railway passed free hundreds of families out of the southwestern part of the State in 1879, to prevent the outcry, or quiet it, which began to arise against the railways for inducing such immigration.

As the result of that experience, the Santa Fé Railway caused all its lands to be examined, from Dodge City west, and reappraised them, and since then have never offered these lands for sale, except as irrigable or grazing lands.

In 1879 the system of irrigation began at Garden City, fifty miles west of Dodge City, and capital has since invested nearly half a million dollars in irrigating canals, from Dodge City to a point eighty miles west thereof. This is the proof of the faith intelligent capital has in "the rainfall extending . . . rapidly" into that section of the State.

To-day southwestern Kansas has many thousands of inhabitants, the bulk of whom are the usual restless land-speculating frontier class, with very little means of any kind. They have entered the country mostly this year or too late last year to raise a crop—this is their first year's experience. Either the history of the past is no criterion from which to judge the future, or in 1886 or 1887 there will be more of suffering and disappointment from failure of crops in southwestern Kansas than has ever been known, from real cause, before in this State.

As to that part of the State it is no longer a question between "cattle-king" and settler, for the range cattle, whether owned by large or small owners, have been forced from the terri-

tory in question; and none are held there now, unless close-herded and corralled nightly.

I wish to quote and commend one statement by the reviewer. He says, page 16: "It is difficult to see why, if the law were properly framed, the small settler should be in any worse condition than he is now," which is his response to Mr. Nimmo's statement, as a reason against the Government leasing lands for grazing, "that small settlers might be forced to sell their present holdings to large herdsmen."

The writer has been engaged for several years in the cattle business, and is by no means a cattle-king, but one of those possessed of hardly a competence. Furthermore, I have found myself compelled to associate in a corporation and buy a larger herd of cattle than I wished, solely because, under the existing public-land laws of the United States, I was not safe in putting only my own money into cattle on the range. I am quite familiar with a portion of Arizona, a goodly part of New Mexico, eastern Colorado, and southwestern Kansas, and with the cattle-men and their modes of running cattle. When I began I had money enough to buy 300 head of cattle; but I found that to turn my cattle on the range and allow them to run, as was the custom, compelled me in the spring to traverse so large a section of country, or hire men to aid in so doing, that my cattle would be of little profit; while not to attend the various round-ups meant the loss of many cattle. I should very much have preferred to purchase from the Santa Fé Railway the odd sections along the Arkansas River and running back a few miles therefrom, and then the even sections belonging to the Government, which lie between, so as to own and fence my own range, and then raise the proper feed for my cattle; but the land-laws of the United States said nay—you may have just 320 acres of the Government land and no more, in Kansas.

The actual experiences under my observation, extending over a few years, are that Mr. Nimmo is wholly wrong, and the present laws work to the disadvantage of the small cattle-man and the settler with little capital. Only in such sections as the settler enters in full force and occupies all or nearly all the land, is the present law a benefit. The recommendation of the Land Commission of 1879 was eminently wise, and if in error at all, it was that the amount of land to a settler should have been more rather than less.

The cry "Land for the landless" is the demagogue's yelp, in the face of the facts as to the lands now owned by the United States Government in the above territory, and it is high time, unless the people really think high-priced beef a good thing, that some other policy should be begun as to the grazing lands of the Plains proper, than merely yelling "cattle-kings" to every request of cattle-men that the Congress will address itself to this subject.

The hope of the country, at present, is almost wholly in the press at the East giving this subject some little attention. If your reviews can awaken discussion on the subject, we shall rejoice, for we do not fear discussion nor investigation of the whole subject. That some wrongs may have been perpetrated we do not doubt; but I am well persuaded that the true interests of the whole country require that our existing land laws should be overhauled and fitted to the existing facts. It is equally true, I think, that too many trimmers and too many timid men find their way into Congress to hope anything from Congress till the press urge the matter upon them.

CATTLE-MAN.

KANSAS, July 27, 1885.

P.S.—I find on figuring out the average rainfall of Lawrence, from Professor Snow's tables, that if the seventeen years of his record be divided into three periods, the two first into six

years each and the last into five years, the result is thus: Average rainfall 1868 to 1873 inclusive is 34.35 inches; from 1874 to 1879 inclusive is 35.68 inches; from 1880 to 1884 inclusive is 35.57 inches. The average for the seventeen years is 35.18 inches. Kansas in 1868 had less than 300,000 population, and now has over 1,000,000. In 1865, at the close of the war, she had probably less than 200,000, and did not reach till 1870 364,399, in 1875 over 528,000. I am strongly inclined to think the popular statement, that settlement has increased the rainfall in eastern Kansas five inches, is a popular humbug. The above figuring doesn't carry it out.

METHODISM IN THE SOUTH.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The recent review in your columns of Bishop McTyeire's 'History of Methodism' shows plainly that the South has yet to develop an impartial historical or biographical writer. The good Bishop, like most of my fellow-Southerners, has allowed his admiration for his subject to crowd out or obscure many unpleasant truths. It is almost impossible to convey to one not residing in the South an idea of the tremendous influence exerted upon the social, political, and educational institutions of that section by the church of which the Bishop is the virtual head, and I for one Southerner do not believe this influence altogether beneficial. The exceedingly large membership and the well-organized system of church government make it a most powerful instrument for good or evil, and as such it affects nearly every household in the South. Its facilities for speedy control of public opinion are almost incredible in the North, and this control has a most disastrous effect upon the advancement of our educational and material interests. Especially detrimental are its influences upon our Southern colleges, a large number of which are under its direct control, and the others held in subjugation by their competition. Vanderbilt University, for instance, which ere this should have been a Cornell or an Ann Arbor, is now not much more than a large theological seminary, where the free discussion of scientific truth will not be tolerated. The influence of the church in warping the intellectual development of the people at large is also exerted through a large and well-circulated series of religious papers, that seem in places to entirely supersede secular literature. A gigantic publishing house at Nashville has furnished all the book literature for thousands of families for the past thirty years, yet it has never published a single work that has received a place in our national literature.

But the most direful influence of this church upon the Southern character is that resulting from the emotional "revivals of religion," whereby the process of instantaneous conversion is substituted for the calm, sober years of reflection that should logically precede all religious convictions. Every hamlet has its annual revival or camp-meeting, and, amid scenes of most violent and unnatural tumult, thousands, mostly children, are "saved" from the wrath to come. A relapse into ultra atheism often follows these sudden conversions. Enthusiasm bordering on fanaticism thus takes the place of reasoning. President Andrew D. White, in a recent lecture, asserted that an ignorant religion was the curse of the Southern negro; but if he had witnessed one-tenth of the scenes of fanaticism that the writer has seen during a lifetime in the South, he would have included the whites in his statement, for the negro's religion is but a crude imitation of theirs. This emotional religion, in my opinion, is the prime cause of our Southern impulsiveness, that pervades many of the ways of secular life.

In conclusion, I claim that the Bishop's church, as the largest and most influential body in the South, is the bulwark which opposes all liberalizing tendencies of our Southern denominations.
A SOUTHERNER.

CABINET IRRESPONSIBILITY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The explanations which the friends of Mr. Roach have offered of the strange spectacle of a man failing in business in a country blessed with a protective tariff, must enable that unfortunate gentleman to pass many a moment in a state of extreme hilarity. He may grow mildly mirthful over the reflections of the journalists of the *Tribune* school, but he will lose all sense of decorum and become a boy again if he will only read "G. B.'s" letter in the current number of the *Nation*. Though so patriotic a citizen as Mr. Roach could hardly persuade himself, under ordinary circumstances, to read a journal entirely given over to the heresies of free trade, as is the *Nation*, yet I am satisfied this good old man will find his reward in borrowing or even purchasing the number referred to. I would, however, advise Mr. Roach to skip the complimentary remarks about the *Nation*, with which "G. B." adroitly seduces one into reading something more on "Cabinet Responsibility." But when Mr. Roach has had his laugh, he will hate Secretary Whitney and Attorney-General Garland with a more deadly hate than ever. Poor old man! he knew that he had somehow failed, but little did he dream of attributing his troubles to "Cabinet Irresponsibility." And, I fear, much of Mr. Roach's wrath will fall on "G. B." Mr. Roach will look reproachfully at "G. B." and say:

"Your intentions are doubtless good, but you have failed to see the point Whitney and Garland are making. They want to make not only Cabinet officers but contractors responsible. They say that Cabinet officers have only such authority as the law gives them; that when a Cabinet officer steps beyond the bounds of his legal powers, his acts are null and void, and do not bind the Government. Hence, they argue, the act of Congress authorizing the construction of the *Dolphin* must be looked to in order to ascertain, not what my contract called for, but what it should have called for. They do look at the act of Congress, and find that it requires my *Dolphin* to have a sea speed which it has not. They turn the *dean* old thing back on my hands, and when I protest that the contract I had with the department did not require that sea speed of her, they coolly answer that that makes no difference; that Congress gave the department the only authority it had, and that authority being to contract for the construction of a vessel of a specified sea speed, which my *Dolphin* did not possess, I could not be paid for it. Now, that is what I call 'Cabinet Responsibility' with a vengeance. I don't say, mind you, that this is your English Cabinet responsibility, but it is bad enough without having anything English about it. The fact is, 'G. B.,' your remarks about responsibility pain me greatly. My feelings are more tender than they used to be. That Cabinet responsibility you yearn for is the last thing on earth I desire. I pine for the good old days when the Party was in power. We had, you know, a big majority in Congress. We passed laws authorizing the departments to contract for something which was required, but, when the law reached the department we began to interpret it, and it always came to mean just what we wanted it to mean. Nobody in Congress asked any questions. Congress was Republican, the department was Republican, and I was Republican—and a mighty good contributing one, too.

"In those days nobody was responsible, except the Government—to me. But now see the difference: Whitney and Garland begin prying into things, and, by Jove, they talk about Cabinet responsibility very much as you do, 'G. B.' The only difference I see is, that Whitney and Garland require of the Cabinet a responsibility which the law already imposes upon it, and you are after a kind of responsibility which you can never get without turning the growth of the country back and beginning all over again. And if you could, 'G. B.,' what would become of me? As much as I love the *Dolphin*, I would not have the rebuilding of her for double the contract price. And just as I feared, these new-fangled notions of responsibility are spreading. I see that Garland is at it again. This time he says that neither the Secretary of the Interior nor the President has any power to make, authorize, or approve these Indian leases; that to make such a lease legal, it must be made by treaty or convention, with the consent of Congress. There is more responsibility, and another good thing gone. Ten to one, 'G. B.,' some of my friends out there have got left. No, no, I am for protection and things like that, but detest responsibility. And, for Heaven's sake, 'G. B.,' don't say I was ruined by 'Cabinet Irresponsibility'; that is the only thing which enables me to pay 200 cents on the dollar."—Very respectfully,

ROGER W. CULL.

BALTIMORE, August 3, 1885.

PARLIAMENTARY GOVERNMENT.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Your able correspondent, "G. B.," earnestly recommends the introduction into the political system of the United States of the English method of Cabinet responsibility, or, as it is more commonly styled, Parliamentary government. His partiality for that method has its origin, I suspect, in the glamour spread over it by the world-wide celebrity of the statesmen who have been engaged in its working, and by the importance of the matters to which it has been applied. Men like Peel, Palmerston, Cobden, Bright, Disraeli, and Gladstone, discussing measures on which the peace and welfare of two hemispheres may hang, cannot fail to attract admiration, which may easily confuse the judgment. If your correspondent wishes to discern the true working of this system, when applied to a country closely resembling the United States, let him turn his eyes northward, and inspect the Dominion of Canada.

The Canadian Confederation was established in 1867, with a Parliamentary system copied from the English form as closely as the circumstances would allow. The American system was considered and deliberately rejected. Let us look now at the results. The annual expenditure of the Confederation (apart from that of the Provinces) was in 1868, in round numbers, \$13,500,000. In 1874 it had increased to \$23,300,000. In 1885 it is \$32,350,000. The public debt of the Confederation was in 1868 \$93,000,000, in 1874 \$141,000,000, in 1885 \$280,000,000.

This enormous increase of public burdens has taken place during a period of profound peace, with no army, navy, or diplomatic service to support, and no treaty liabilities or other outside obligations to discharge. During the same period the people of the United States, after passing through an exhausting and most expensive civil war, have paid off nearly a thousand millions of debt, and now actually owe less, per man, than the people of Canada. In seventeen years Canada, which was the cheapest of English-speaking countries to live in, has become one of the dearest. With a population less than that of the State of New York, it is piling up debt at the rate

of \$10,000,000 a year, and is staggering wildly and helplessly onward to the brink of a ruinous catastrophe. Such is the fruit of the Parliamentary system.

When a public expenditure of any sort is proposed for the consideration of the American national legislature (and the same may in general be said of any State legislature), the proposal has to pass through five distinct ordeals. There is, first, the proper committee of the House of Representatives, composed of members of both political parties, each side eagerly watching to catch the other tripping. Next it must pass the House. Then the Senate committee, composed of members of the two parties, scrutinizes it. The Senate, strong in public support and jealous of its own rights and reputation, has then to discuss and adopt the measure. And finally it comes before an independent and irremovable President, armed with the veto power, and finding both duty and popularity concerned in checking improper expenditure.

In Canada there is but a single check, and that of the weakest kind. The only committee is the Cabinet, composed of members of the dominant party. The Senate is a nonentity, and the Governor-General a figurehead. The sole ordeal is the discussion in the House of Commons. The members of the House are elected for five years, and feel little sense of responsibility to their constituents. An astute Premier, by granting favors here and there to provinces, cliques, and individuals, can always secure a majority. If he is above these methods, he falls—as Mr. Mackenzie fell, and as Gladstone has fallen—when the popular movement which carried him into office has spent its force.

The Canadian Premier and his colleagues are censured for their lavish outlay, made in securing the support of their majority. Their defence is, that the system makes this method indispensable. They are unquestionably able, clear-headed, and patriotic men. Undoubtedly they would much prefer that their Government should be economical and impartial. But what can they do? They have half-a-dozen importunate interests to pacify. The opposition of the French party alone would overthrow them in a week; and when its demands are satisfied, other interests must receive their proportionate shares of the plunder. The situation is hopeless.

Mr. Goldwin Smith is struck with the evil and the danger. He would escape them by abolishing parties. This is like a proposal to purify the atmosphere by abolishing winds. Party is the safeguard of free government. The trouble is not in party spirit, but in institutions so perversely contrived as to direct it into the worst possible channels. It is as though an architect, erecting a building on a windy site, were to so design his structure that the wind should be collected under the roof and blow it off.

But, it may be asked, if the system works so badly in Canada, why should it not work as ill in England? The answer is, that it does work badly there, both for economy and for stability. Look, for a single example, at the preposterous expenditure in the Sudan affair, undertaken solely to save the Government from being upset by a gust of popular passion. But the real merit of the English system is to be sought in another direction. Parliamentary government has been the engine by which the English people have wrenched their liberties first from the crown, and later from the aristocracy. The struggle with the latter is still going on, and for this struggle no better machinery than the English system could be devised. When the same system was first introduced into Canada, after the Rebellion and the Durham inquiry, its office was the same—to rescue popular rights from the grasp of the old Family Compact and the Co-

lonial Office autocracy. For this purpose it was admirably adapted. But at the time when the Confederation was established, this object had been fully accomplished. The instrument which has served its purpose is retained when it has become not merely useless, but a nuisance. The lamps which last night dispelled the darkness in our house are kept burning, to waste our means and poison our atmosphere in the daytime.

M. N.

TORONTO, July 27, 1885.

POLITICAL ECONOMY IN CLEVELAND.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Among the institutions that are educating the wage-workers of this country in the first principles of political economy, the Cleveland Rolling-Mill Company deserves a high rank, and the instruction it has given has been none the less thorough because unintentional.

Three years ago the wage-workers of northern Ohio had a profound belief that our so-called protective tariff really did protect the American workman against the ruinous competition of the "pauper labor of Europe." Then came the strike of 1882, and these workmen saw the company, which was able to make a large profit by virtue of the protective tariff, quietly lock them out and fill their places with this very "pauper labor of Europe," freshly imported for the occasion. It is not strange, therefore, that the representative from this district, elected shortly after that lesson, should have introduced a bill which afterward became a law, viz., the law prohibiting the importation of foreign laborers under contract; and that the workmen should have come to believe that the protective tariff was expressly designed to give the capitalist one more advantage over the wage-worker.

The subsequent course of the company with these Polish, Hungarian, and Bohemian workmen with whom they had replaced their former employees, is also very instructive. The new men were unorganized, and it was currently believed that "a Polak would work for any wages, and could be put upon to any extent," and so the company felt that it ran no risk in cutting down their wages whenever it became convenient to do so. Their wages were accordingly cut down, by means of successive reductions, 37½ per cent, below what they were paid in '82—cut down to a point where men were trying to support families on two cents per meal per person, while the city infirmary could not feed its paupers for less than five cents per meal per person; cut down to where the city had to doctor them when they became sick, and bury them when they died. Notice was given of a still further reduction, and though the men were wholly unorganized they struck at once, and proceeded in a body to forcibly shut up every manufactory in which the company was supposed to have an interest. The men claim that they were induced to come to Cleveland on the pledge of steady work at good wages for five years. The company, however, deny having authorized any such agreement. Whether they authorized it or not, the men so understood it, and are smarting under a sense of wrong.

So far as I have yet heard, there is but one opinion on the part of the citizens, viz.: the severest condemnation of the company, and a growing feeling against the importation of foreign laborers in the way and for the purpose for which these were imported. "The company," they say, "has no right to bring thousands of families of foreigners among us, ignorant of our language and customs, and settling in communities by themselves; use them to displace our own citizens and so long as it can make money out of them, and then turn them over upon the taxpayers, compelling the public to feed them and to

bear the additional expense of restraining the violence which is but the natural result of their ignorance, added to a just sense of wrong."

It is just this sort of experience that has produced in certain communities such a dread of foreign immigration; and it would seem that the feeling is a pardonable one, as a man might be pardoned for having a fairly strong prejudice against quail on toast if he had been forced to attempt to swallow the quail whole.—Very respectfully,
L. B. TUCKERMAN.

CLEVELAND, O., July 24, 1885.

Notes.

BESIDES Mr. F. B. Sanborn's 'Life and Letters of John Brown,' Roberts Bros. have in hand for the coming season a translation of the scandalizing 'Memoirs of Karoline Bauer'; a new translation of 'Père Goriot,' with more to come of Balzac's novels; Hamerton's 'Paris in Old and Present Times,' which readers of the *Portfolio* have already enjoyed; and 'The Sermon on the Mount,' made into a gift-book with the aid of designs by well-known American artists, particularly those of Mr. Harry Fenn, who lately visited the Holy Land. The Rev. E. E. Hale furnishes an historical introduction. Mr. Hale has also in preparation a work, 'Franklin in France,' based upon the Franklin papers purchased by the United States Government. In press is a 'Short History of the City of Philadelphia,' by Susan Coolidge.

Macmillan & Co. have in press, and will shortly publish in London and New York, 'The Light of Asia and the Light of the World,' by Prof. S. H. Kellogg, D.D., of the Western Theological Seminary, Allegheny, Pa., formerly for many years missionary to India. The work is a careful comparison of the legend, the doctrines and the ethics of Buddhism with the Gospel history and the doctrine and the ethics of Christ.

Frederic Tredwell, 78 Nassau St., will publish early in the fall 'A Sketch of the Life of Apollonius of Tyana,' by Daniel M. Tredwell. It will be handsomely manufactured.

'Outlines of Mediæval and Modern History,' by that competent scholar, P. V. N. Myers, is in the press of Ginn & Co., Boston.

By arrangement with the widow of the late F. J. Fergus (Hugh Conway), Henry Holt & Co. will publish his novel, 'A Family Affair,' which has been running in the *English Illustrated Magazine*.

'Hittell's Hand-Book of Pacific Coast Travel,' published a few days ago by A. L. Bancroft & Co., of San Francisco, is a revised reissue, with changed title, of a book published by the same firm in 1882, and then called 'Bancroft's Pacific Coast Guide Book,' by John S. Hittell.

When, in cases like the foregoing, the publisher changes as well as the title, we may charitably allow that he has been deceived. Such an inference seems strong when we meet with the publication of a third translation, within a year, of the last work of the well-known *Gartenlaube* novelist, "E. Werner." The original ('Gebaunt und Erlöst') was published two years since, and was soon translated in this country (by Mrs. Wister) as 'Banned and Blessed,' and in England as 'Raymond's Atonement'; this last being reprinted in the Seaside Library, Pocket Edition. We now have a third version, published by T. R. Knox & Co., without the author's name, but "from the German by Dr. Raphael," under the title 'Enthralled and Released.'

The making an historical monument of the Old South Church, Boston, has led to its being used not only as an antiquarian museum and for a summer juvenile lecture course in American history, but as a centre of impulse to historical

research and composition. In 1881 "Old South Prizes" began to be offered for essays written by graduates of the Boston High and Latin Schools of the current and the two previous years, and one of the two subjects then proposed was the policy of the early colonists toward the Quakers. Mr. Henry L. Southwick was awarded the first prize, and his essay has now been printed (Boston: The Old South Meeting-house). Its successors, or some of them, may also be thus honored. Several young ladies have taken first and second prizes. Mr. Southwick's essay is a creditable beginning.

The series of Military Monographs undertaken by the Military Service Institution opens with one on "Our Sea-Coast Defences," by Lieut. Eugene Griffin, U. S. A. (G. P. Putnam's Sons).

Prof. Austin Scott's address, last November, at the 200th anniversary of the establishment of the American Board of Proprietors of East Jersey, forms No. 8 of the Third Series of the Johns Hopkins University Studies. Non-Jersey men will, we think, be disposed to wish the orator of the day had separated his philosophy from his facts.

The fifth number of *Mind in Nature* is the first that we have seen. It bears date July, 1885, and is published by the Cosmic Publishing Company, Chicago, in behalf of psychical, medical, and scientific information. We will borrow a few lines from the editorial announcement of the organization of the Western Society for Psychical Research: "The conditions of life, climate, and modes of thought are so essentially different in all these localities—in Europe, Boston, and Chicago—as to produce psychical phenomena differing, if not in kind, yet in degree, and calling for new and local investigators. . . . The Western mind is less shackled by conventionalism and traditions than is that of Boston or London, of Vienna or Paris. Men brought up within sight of the White Mountain can never quite escape the influence of its mighty shadows. . . ."

The newest issues of the larger 'Brockhaus' Conversations-Lexikon' (New York: L. W. Schmidt) reach Merovingians in part 159-160. They contain an unusually small number of long or striking articles. A fine colored map of Mecklenburg and Pomerania accompanies the article upon the former province. The smaller Brockhaus reaches Cypselus in its 15th part. A pretty map of France, by departments, is noticeable here, as well as an ethnographical map of Europe.

On a large map of Central Asia, in No. 117 of the Journal of the Berlin Geographical Society, Franz Max Schmidt lays down the route of a very early traveller, Wilhelm Rubruk. The journey began at Constantinople in 1253, and extended as far as a point some 300 miles south of Lake Baikal, whence, returning, the route diverged southerly so as almost to touch Lake Issik-kul, and ended in a descent of the Volga, a skirting of the west shore of the Caspian, and a traversing of Armenia, Asia Minor, and Syria, as far as Acre, in 1255. Rubruk was a Franciscan sent on a mission to the Tartars by Saint Louis. In the Proceedings are reported remarks of Mr. A. F. Banelier, at a session of the Society, on our Mexican border-lands. Interesting, too, is a map of Cumberland Sound and Davis Strait, by Dr. Franz Boas, showing the wide discrepancies between the coast lines as newly ascertained and as defined on the English Admiralty charts.

Mr. Banelier's 'Archæological Tour of Mexico,' reviewed at length in our columns not long since, went suddenly out of print almost before publication. By the courtesy of the Archæological Society, who loan Messrs. Cupples, Upham & Co., Boston, negatives of the really fine illustrations belonging to the book, that firm has been enabled to make a small edition, numbering 200 copies, printed from type.

Mr. F. Gutekunst, Philadelphia, sends us a panel photographic portrait of General Grant, presumably taken in the early part of 1866. The facsimile of an autograph letter from the sitter which accompanies this print and praises its excellence as a likeness—"there has been no better"—bears date of March 10, 1866. General Grant's testimony is, of course, not more valuable than any man's is apt to be as to his own likeness. Nevertheless, it is clear that this portrait will take a high rank from its intrinsic quality, as well as from the circumstance that it represents General Grant in the very prime of life, and in the happy middle term between the crushing cares of the conduct of the war and the hardly less wearing responsibilities of the civil Administration. He stands erect, his right hand in his pocket, his left hand thrust into his bosom, but not wholly hid. His face has a sober, almost stern expression, in which strength of will and of endurance is most manifest. The figure is three-quarters in length. We have here the original from which Gugler made the meritorious engraving which we noticed last week.

Prof. Erich Schmidt, of the University of Vienna, has resigned his professorship in order to accept the position of Director of the Goethe Archives in Weimar (of whose opening we give an account elsewhere), under an appointment from the Grand Duchess of Weimar. He is the author of an admirable work upon Goethe's relation to French and English literature, called 'Richardson, Rousseau, and Goethe.'

Johannes Scherr has become a confirmed book-maker, depending for success not upon originality of material or thought, but upon the choice of blood-and-thunder themes, and a style which often is nothing better than rant. His last book, 'Die Nihilisten' (Leipzig: O. Wigand), is of a piece with his account of the Commune and his eleven volumes of essays—easily read, but differing from respectable commonplace only by exaggeration of language and personal spleen. He seems to have depended entirely upon "Stepniak" and other equally accessible sources of information, never citing an untranslated authority.

M. Lanciani points out, in the *Bullettino Comunale di Roma*, some resemblances between the Roman and the English patricians in their method of uniting the conveniences of a city life, made necessary by their attendance on the Senate and on Parliament, with the healthy exercises of country life. The paper is occasioned by the discovery of an old city below Tusculum.

In a letter to the London *Times* of June 3d, Sir Frederick W. Burton denied a statement made in the *Athenæum* on the previous Saturday, that the Ansidi Raphael, recently purchased for the sum of £70,000, had, since its arrival in London, suffered severely from the "desiccated atmosphere" of the National Gallery, and that the planks composing the panel on which it is painted had more or less parted. Although the Director's letter is calculated to allay any anxiety about the present condition of the picture, it is satisfactory to know that he has in his possession positive proof that it has suffered no change since it came into his keeping, and that the minute cracks which are perceptible on close inspection upon its surface (cracks perhaps a century old), certainly existed thirteen years ago. The proof is as follows: In 1871, when the picture was taken down from the wall at Blenheim to have a glass door fitted to the frame, Mr. George Scharf, Director of the National Portrait Gallery, one of the most accurate draughtsmen in England, made a drawing of it in which the cracks appear exactly as at present. This is also the case with two photographs, one taken last spring at Blenheim just before the picture was packed to be sent to London, and the other immediately after

it reached its destination before it was hung in the Gallery.

The interest in seismology continues unabated, and the frequency of earthquake tremors of late is such as to lead in the direction of the accumulation of observational data of great importance. Cashmere was a favored locality in the early part of the past month, shocks continuing to be felt at intervals of two or three days; and in Calcutta a severe earthquake lasted for some time, being felt with varying intensity over the whole province, and some of the shocks being very serious. At the Meudon Observatory, Paris, an apparatus for registering electrically the propagation of earthquakes in underground strata has been set up by M. Fouqué, with the assistance of the director, M. Janssen; and a series of experiments are now under way, the effect of the fall of weights of 600 to 900 kilogrammes from heights of 7 to 9 metres being satisfactorily registered by the new apparatus.

—There is perhaps no other form of literature in which the supply, numerically considered, is so largely in excess of the demand as it is in the case of guide-books. But it is also true that no other reference-books, on the average, are so ill-prepared. When one seeks for other information than that concerning picture galleries and battles, he rarely finds anything but loose general statements which are of no good, or figures and directions arranged to correspond to the advertising pages at the end of the volume. It gives us unusual pleasure, therefore, to be able to recommend a neatly printed and bound volume of 117 pages, called 'Berlin as a Medical Centre,' published by the New England Publishing Company at Sandy Hook, Conn. The author is Dr. Horatio R. Bigelow, formerly of Boston and later surgeon in the navy, but now pursuing an advanced course of study at Berlin. While we have no doubt that the two chapters (out of five) which are given to the special interests of medical students will prove very serviceable to them, it is as a general guide to Americans in Berlin that the volume has interested us, and that we recommend it to all intending to go thither. For it not only gives a great variety of information, but precisely the kind which is most useful and the hardest to get. There are, for instance, not only the addresses of hotels and boarding-houses, but full details as to neighborhood, prices, and so on, with careful instructions as to the need of attention to contracts for lodgings, and the like. Scales of total expenses, adapted to persons of different incomes, are given both for single men and for man and wife.

—Another dwarf book has been discovered, smaller than any hitherto known. The Dante published by the Salmin at Padua in 1878 was vaunted as the smallest booklet ever made, but now it appears that, two centuries and a half earlier (Oct. 15, 1519), the Giunti published at Venice an office of the Virgin only thirty millimetres broad by forty-eight high. Such a little book was easily lost, and this Tom Thumb has only just come out of his hiding-place. The Salmin will cry, "Pe-reant qui ante nos nostros libellulos fecerunt." This pursuit of littleness must be drawing to an end. The progress of horse training has reduced the time needed to "cover" a mile from the 2:40 of the last generation to the 2:08½ of Maud S., but there is a physical limit to the possibility of breaking the record. Type cannot be made and cannot be handled beyond a certain degree of smallness. The type-setting and proof-reading of the Salmin Dantino was said to have ruined some workmen's eyes by its microscopic type. A book may be made of course very small by having one short word on a page; we have seen such a one which was not more than half as large as the 'Oficiolo della B. M. V.' lately discovered;

but such a production of the press does not deserve the name of book; and nothing that has real reading matter can be much more minute than the Giunti volume.

—In a work entitled 'Les Roumains au Moyen-Âge—Une énigme historique' (Paris, 1885), Professor Xenopol, of the University of Jassy, has come out in defence of the Daco-Roman origin of his nation against what, in East European ethnology, is designated as the "Rösler theory." Some decades ago it was still universally taught in histories and geographies that the Rumans, or Wallachs, who form the bulk of the population of Moldavia, Wallachia, Transylvania, and some neighboring districts, were descendants of the colonists whom the Emperor Trajan, after the subjugation of the Dacians, in the beginning of the second century, carried into those countries from all parts of the Roman world, and of the natives of Dacia Romanized by the legions, the Imperial officials, and the Latin-speaking settlers. The Latin character of the Ruman, or Wallach, language, in spite of the very heavy admixture of Slavic, Magyar, Turkish, Tartar, Greek, and other elements, is as unquestionable as that of Italian or Portuguese. There were, however, facts which more or less strongly militated against this notion of the origin of the people. The Roman legions and the Roman inhabitants in general, as the historians of the later Empire tell us, were withdrawn from Dacia by the Emperor Aurelian, some one hundred and seventy years after the conquest, and transferred into Moesia, before the invading Goths. The names Ruman and Wallach nowhere occur in connection with the Dacian territories more than a thousand years after Trajan, during which Goths and Gepidae, Huns and Avars, Slavs and Petchenegs, Cumans and Magyars, obliterated there the last vestiges of Roman reign and influence. During the same period Wallachs repeatedly appear in the history of the Rumanian—that is, Roman or Ruman—territories south of the Balkans. The idiom of the Wallachs now living in Macedonia and the neighboring regions is almost wholly identical with the language of Rumania and of the Transylvanian Rumans. All this, and much more, actually induced some critics, especially Hungarian, to modify the popular theory, but could not shake it, until the appearance, in 1871, of 'Römische Studien,' by Professor Rösler, of the University of Gratz, who, by a vast array of learning, endeavored to prove the very late immigration of the Wallachs, from the Latinized East-Roman lands south of the Danube, into Wallachia, Moldavia, and Transylvania. This theory has found both strong supporters and assailants—among the former Prof. Paul Hunfalvy, of Buda-Pesth, and among the latter Professor Jung, of Innsbruck. The difficulties on either side are immense, and Professor Xenopol is right in calling the vexed question an enigma. That his patriotic solution will not generally be accepted as final—except by his compatriots—may safely be predicted.

GENERAL GORDON AT KHARTUM.

The Journals of Maj.-Gen. C. G. Gordon, C.B., at Kartoum. Introduction and Notes by A. Egmont Hake. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.; London: Kegan Paul, Trench & Co. 1885.

THESE journals begin on the 10th of September, 1884, a few hours after Colonel Stewart, accompanied by Mr. Power and the French Consul, M. Herbin, had left Khartum on their ill-fated attempt to reach Dongola. It is characteristic of the singularly self-centred character of General Gordon that these journals, though frank to an extreme regarding the thoughts and feelings of the writer, do not contain a single word of re-

gret for the loss of the society of his two English comrades. The last entry is dated December 14, and concludes with these ominous and affecting words: "Now MARK THIS: if the Expeditionary Force, and I ask for no more than two hundred men, does not come in ten days, the town may fall; and I have done my best for the honor of our country. Good-bye." It is impossible not to admire the equanimity with which the lone British officer watches, day after day, the toils being drawn closer and closer around; the quiet humor with which he comments upon the defects of the fighting material at his disposal; the cheerful and undaunted spirit that he maintains to the last. But it is, in our judgment, no less impossible not to feel that his defence of Khartum was a mistake from the beginning—a fatally false reading of the situation, resulting not in his death alone, but in that of many thousands of men, women, and children.

From the date of the despatch of British iron-clads to Alexandria down to the present time, English intervention in Egypt has been an unrelieved series of blunders. This has been occasioned by the fact that, rich in ability as the Liberal Cabinet was, it never, in regard to Egypt, had a clear and definite policy of its own. It oscillated hither and thither, trying at one moment to soothe the minds of its Radical supporters by a movement in retreat, and then to quiet the clamors of its Jingo opponents by a movement in advance. The result has been to reduce Egypt to a state of chaos. Yet so enamored were they with this policy of facing both ways, that, undeterred by their Egyptian experiences, they imported it into the Sudan also, and the result has been precisely the same. The Sudan, like Egypt, has been reduced to a state of chaos. The (so-called) Mahdi was already a formidable power in Central Africa when the Liberal Cabinet entered upon its campaign against Arabi Pasha, and it was warned, again and again, that when it had crushed the Nationalist party in Egypt it would have to undertake the much more difficult task of either settling with or crushing the Sudan Mahdi. But it was the policy of the Cabinet at this time to minimize, as much as possible, the character of its intervention in Egypt. Kordofan was a very long way off, and Mr. Gladstone and his colleagues persuaded themselves that they might get rid of the Mahdi by the simple expedient of resolutely ignoring his existence. Besides, was not the Khedive an independent sovereign? The Liberal Cabinet, as his allies and well-wishers, had intervened to enforce "the municipal law of Egypt" (such was Mr. Gladstone's delicious phrase) against an unscrupulous "military adventurer"; but it possessed neither the right nor the desire to dictate to the mighty Tewfik the policy to be pursued in the Sudan. The policy of Tewfik and his pashas was to seize upon Arabi's disbanded soldiers, load them with chains, and send them off to the Sudan. There they were formed into what was called an army under the command of General Hicks, assisted by about a dozen European officers of different nationalities, and directed to march to Obeid and "smash the Mahdi." A more hopeless policy than this it is impossible to imagine. The separation of Egypt from the Sudan, and the independence of the latter country, were prominent portions of the political programme of the Nationalists. The relations between the Mahdi and Arabi had been of a friendly character, and it was certain that Arabi's disbanded soldiers would not fight against men with whom they had no quarrel for a Khedive whom they detested. What became of General Hicks's army will never be known. The officers were certainly killed, and the bulk of the soldiers most probably entered the service of the Mahdi. As an Egyptian army, at any rate, it disappeared. And then, for

the first time, the Liberal Cabinet awoke to a recognition of the fact that they could not get rid of the Sudan by merely pretending that there was no such place.

Their first determination was unquestionably a wise one. It was to cut the Sudan adrift, and withdraw the frontier of Egypt to the northern edge of the Korosko Desert. But this policy, precisely because it would greatly facilitate the evacuation of Egypt by the British troops, was profoundly distasteful to the Khedive and his pashas, and to the miscellaneous horde of cosmopolitan usurers, place-holders, and office-seekers who fattened and flourished under the grateful protection of British bayonets. These tender-hearted people became deeply afflicted at the thought of the fate impending over the Egyptian garrisons in Central Africa if abandoned to the tender mercies of the Mahdi and his followers. The Conservative Opposition in Parliament, never loth to add to the difficulties of a Liberal Government, took up the cause of the Egyptian garrisons with the utmost zeal. The honor of the nation, so they said, demanded that they should be extricated, no matter at what cost. Now, whenever a political party invokes "the honor of the nation" as demanding a particular line of action, we may be certain that it is one which no wise or reasonable statesman would follow. But it is at the same time an appeal impossible to meet with argument, because "the honor of the nation" is a matter of feeling and not of reason, and appeals, therefore, with extraordinary force to sentimentalists, philanthropists, humanitarians, Chauvinists—in a word, the unreasonable people of all kinds who form the vast majority in every nation. Against "the honor of the nation" no considerations of expediency, humanity, or even impracticability are allowed to have the slightest value, and those who are rash enough to propound them are instantly denounced as base and sordid utilitarians. The Liberal Cabinet had not sufficient vim in its constitution to remain true to its wiser mind when "the honor of the nation" was hurled against it, and in an evil hour for Egypt, for the Sudan, for England and itself, it sent General Gordon to Africa to try his hand at the impossible task of withdrawing the Egyptian garrisons.

Six years before, General Gordon had described Egyptian rule in the Sudan and Central Africa as "the worst form of brigandage." He predicted that a general insurrection against it must occur in a few years. The bribe that he was now to offer the Mahdi in exchange for the release of the Egyptian garrisons was the liberation of Central Africa from the detested oppression of the Turk and the Circassian; and it is just possible that if Gordon had remained true to this policy, his mission might have been successful. But his deviations from it seemed to increase in proportion to the distance which divided him from London, and when at last he reached Khartum he may be said to have discarded it altogether. His first intention was to go to Suakim, and from thence proceed straight to the residence of the Mahdi, under the protection of an Arab chief—a personal friend of his own. He would then have come to the Mahdi upon a mission of peace as an envoy of the British Government, and free from the taint of any connection with the detested Egyptian rule. This plan bore upon it the impress of the simple and daring genius of the man; but in an unlucky hour he allowed himself to be diverted to Cairo, and there he not only abandoned the plan, but consented to go to Khartum as the Governor of the Sudan—the nominee and agent of "that worst form of brigandage" which the Sudanese were determined to expel from among them. This sealed the fate of the Egyptian garrisons, of Khartum, and of Gordon himself. From that moment it became

all but impossible for the Sudanese to recognize Gordon as a bringer of peace and emancipation. But the inconsistency of his action was not limited to this initial mistake. If one thing more than another was clear in the whole of this rash business, it was that Gordon was not sent to the Sudan in order to make war on the Mahdi. But he had hardly reached Khartum when he entered upon this policy of making war—converting that place into a base for military operations against the very man to whom he had been sent to negotiate its surrender. The consequences of this indefensible change of policy have been, upon Gordon's own showing, terribly disastrous. He calculates, in these journals, that at least 80,000 men, women, and children have perished from war, disease, and hunger. The garrisons, as all the world knows, have not been relieved, but Khartum has itself fallen, and Gordon is no more.

We have always stigmatized as absurd the notion that Egypt proper was in any danger from the uprising in Central Africa. Insurrections in Moslem countries are forced, by the peculiar character of the Moslem religion, to assume a religious character. They always have a Mahdi, an Imam, or some other personage of religious pretensions at their head, because every Mohammedan state is a theocracy, and to levy war against the head is just such an impious and heretical proceeding as was an attack upon the Pope in the days of Hildebrand. It is only a zeal for the purity of the faith which can justify such a war. But at bottom these insurrections are occasioned, as in Europe, by oppressions and cruelties. Thus the rising in Central Africa was a movement against the atrocities of Turkish and Circassian pashas, and might safely be counted on to subside as soon as the producing cause had been eradicated. What has occurred since the capture of Khartum has proved the correctness of this view. The strength of the Mahdi dwindled down to nothing as soon as the immediate end was achieved which held his followers together. So far from the protracted defence of Khartum having kept the insurrection a way from Egypt, it is most probable that only the presence of Gordon there drew the Mahdi from his capital at Obeid.

These last journals of General Gordon show that, in holding on to Khartum, there was no ulterior policy which he had thought out for himself. He repeats again and again that it would be "mean" to abandon the garrisons in the interior, but he does not attempt to explain in what way the situation of those garrisons would be improved by the ruthless manner in which he was carrying on the war round Khartum. His deliberate destruction of the irrigation wheels along the course of the Nile, in order to produce a famine, was in particular a proceeding very difficult to harmonize with that profound affection for the Sudanese with which Gordon professed to be animated. The fact is, that Gordon was, before all things, a soldier—as a soldier, he had, in China and in the Sudan, achieved signal successes with very imperfect means. This had given him a supreme confidence in himself, and in what Napoleon would have called "his star." He exaggerated his own strength and resources as much as he underrated the material forces and the moral feelings arrayed against them; and thus he was deluded into the belief that the straightest and speediest way of carrying out his "mission of peace" was by "smashing the Mahdi."

But while Gordon is mainly responsible for the useless carnage that has been going on in the Sudan since he arrived at Khartum, no considerable portion of it rests also upon Mr. Gladstone and his colleagues. They sent Gordon from London as a representative of Great Britain en-

gaged on a mission of peace. In allowing him to become, at Cairo, the agent and nominee of the hateful Egyptian Government, they not only completely transformed both the character of the envoy and that of his mission, but they placed his future conduct beyond their control. The weakness and want of foresight which caused this acquiescence has involved Great Britain in a costly and futile campaign. Never were gallant lives more uselessly sacrificed than in Lord Wolseley's disastrous attempt to reach Khartum, and the even more disastrous operations of General Graham about Suakim. Party feeling has elevated Gordon into a popular hero, and a national monument is about to be erected to his memory. Actually, however, he was engaged, when at Khartum, in trying to enforce "the worst form of brigandage" upon a people whom intolerable wrong had driven into revolt. It is hard to see in what way this was a service either to his country or to humanity in general.

SUPERSTITIONS.

The Gentleman's Magazine Library. Edited by George Laurence Gomme, F.S.A. [Vol. III.] Popular Superstitions. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

As yet this Library, made up from three half-centuries of the English *Gentleman's Magazine*, does not, like an Australian river, after a long, broad, deep course, dry up, somehow (one cannot tell how), and come to an end. Its current has not, perhaps, been very broad or deep; but it goes on, promising much the same as ever; and there is a good deal of it.

We must say, gently, of the editorship, that it might well use a little more care, if not more intelligence: there are still needless repetitions, and there is still a want of method, so that things which belong together are sometimes not brought together. With a good index, *first*, for the compiler, and then with a good eye, knowing what it ought to seek, there might easily be no blunders, of any consequence, in making this collection from old printed books. Let us, at the same time, say that the mistakes of printers or proof-readers are far fewer, and the bulks of matter nearly worthless to readers at all practised or thoughtful, much less than in former volumes.

"Superstitions" are things that our race never tires of bringing out in its life and trying over again, and so, of course, never tires of hearing and reading about; they are all only special instances or illustrations of the superstition that is in us. The wide reach of this quality in our race we are constantly getting glimpses of, and showing, in others and ourselves. Thus, when the last chilly little February that ever was was just taking its (happily small) place among the months, the greater number of us—thoughtful and reasoning people, a good many of us—watched, in half-faith, the interview of its second day with the conscious sun. After what we then saw, the greater number of us believed, beforehand, that just as surely as the fox, American, English, German, or our own old undying fox of *Æsop* and *La Fontaine*, beheld his shadow on that day, and, beholding it, shrank back to his hole, so surely would all foxes, and the rest of us, see two winters in this one year.

And look how strange all that is, in us thoughtful, reasoning people. Out of the special force of calendar-days that do duty in that cold month, we had such faith in the peculiar ability and intelligence, and the steadfast character and influential connections, of February 2d, that we expected, beforehand, just what we have since had. Yet what a poor dependence ours was! "Historic doubts" hit that day harder than Arch-

bishop Whately's ever hit that all too solid monster Napoleon First. Thus, in the first place, February 2d lives but a day of sunlight, like Aristotle's "beasts" at the river Hypanis, or, counting his dark times, twice as long; how are we to trust him for an arrangement which is to govern some fifty or more days, brighter and better, in most ways, than himself? Then, again, February 2d is not February 2d, but altogether another day wearing his name and badge; for, more than one hundred and thirty years ago, the whole force of calendar-days was moved forward, so that September 3d was called September 14th; and all others after had place and name changed, in like manner, through all the three hundred and sixty-five. Now, which day he really is, we may leave to those who have settled whether eighteen hundred is himself or his successor; but February 2d, at any rate, is not February 3d, and yet we take it that for wearing the name and badge, he will show the same character as the real original, and have the same understanding with the "head centre" of our solar system. Moreover (and this in the next and last place), Time, which for us, is made up of days, has been said (and a poet has put this into words which are nearly the same as a demonstration, to most readers) to have no existence whatever:

"Tempus, item, per se, non est, sed, rebus ab ipis,
Consequitur sensus transactum quid sit in ævo."

If so, days, as days—the best and the worst of them—have no existence, and that which does not exist cannot well do anything in the way of making arrangements with the sun, or any other thing, so far as we can see with the sight that we now have—"quaternions," or the "fourth dimension," being of no help to us.

It is fair to say, however, that a hundred and thirty-odd years ago "the Glastonbury Thorn" (bush), and another bush or two in England, who could not say a word for themselves, seem to have fastened their faith, such as it was, just as surely on a calendar-day as we wise people, who could give fifty reasons to anybody or anything, if we had them. The faith of those thorn-bushes seems to have been more intelligent than ours—in one point, at least—that they went behind the rating of the calendar, and did not take the new 25th of December for their Christmas Day. They waited over all the days of bell-ringing, and carol-singing, and feasting, and friendliness, and fooling, to bloom, as they are said to have bloomed, most resolutely and vigorously, on "old Christmas Day," which, for one hundred and thirty-three years, has been to most of us mortal Christian men the eve of the Epiphany. Whence those particular thorn-trees get their information, unless through effective tap-roots from something like the old "mundane soul" of the Ionic and other old philosophies, is as hard to guess as whence the faith in Candlemas and his bargain with the sun has come to us; but since the thorns and we, being apparently equally wise and equally in earnest, keep contradictory reckonings, which ought to give in? or are we all wrong?

One thing more, but not more strange, though strange enough, about these English thorns and the Englishmen, their neighbors, is that a way of common understanding was lately open—perhaps is still open—between man and tree in that part of England, so that while the thorn-trees stood in their lot, and would not, for Parliament or priest, come down from their stand, but would wait till the 25th of December, old style, before they would don their Christmas dress, the country folk, taking their meaning from them, and taking it for true, made too strong a siding with the faithful thorns for the rector or vicar. The parson yielded for the time—kept two Christmases, for his own part, that year—and the

thorns and their allies carried it, over the almanac and an act of Parliament, that Christmas should be celebrated once more, at least, at its old time. Does a case like this throw any sort of side-light upon the importance of our old classical training? A man of mere science would never undertake to make anything of it; but will not the scholar, with plenty of precedents from Ovid and Virgil, be ready to take it kindly into his store of bleeding cornel-shoots, and arms and hands stretched out pleading and quivering, as the bark of laurel or lotus crept on and hardened over them? And what amount of strengthening does the English case take from kindred examples like those in Greek and Roman mythology?

In the volume before us are "superstitions" and old customs, sorted by the day of the month and by the shire and town; and there is witchcraft—a good deal of it. Readers of a moderately scientific turn may amuse themselves here with tracing in a new field the influence of what they may find to be "heredity." Here is an overwhelming array of instances which, if read by wise eyes, may show that there has struck over from the human race into its dependent races, four-legged and other—such as chairs, tables, and the like—the principle of hereditary transmission of habits; so that the active demonstrations, in later years, of these pieces of household furniture—the rearing, the walking, the vaulting—are only in the direction of their forefathers' habits, some hundreds of years ago. Doubtless intelligent readers can find here, also, if they look for it, Darwin's great law of the survival of the fittest prevailing just as surely among these dependent, inanimate races—tables, chairs, bedsteads, sideboards, sofas, and whatever of them have legs and feet to their bodies.

It is odd to find here mention of the figure of a horse-shoe fastened to the threshold of Stanningfield Church to keep out the fairies; and it is funny to find that race of tiny folk passing, with English rustics, under the travestied name of "Pharisees," as it was always funny to find the warring Saxons figuring as "Saracens," and Paynim hounds, in the old romances. In the matter of the fairies' title, we think the philological scent of Sylvanus Urban Esquire's correspondent may have been dull, and that "Pharisees" ought perhaps to have been written "Fairies-es," a double plural, as we have heard "wristes-es" for "wristes" (wrists).

Among the fairies, in the popular reckoning, figure a harmless and friendly tribe called in Wales "Knockers," who are beforehand with the miners in discovery and pounding and drilling and blasting until men strike the vein of ore, and then leave off their work. For the assistance of these kindly little toilers even men of standing argue; one of whom, one Lewis Morris, Esq., of Cardiganshire, writes that "they have stood his very good friends." Believing in them, therefore, from personal experience, he brings reason and philosophy to back his experience:

"The word 'supernatural' used among us is nonsense; there is nothing supernatural; for the degrees of all beings, from the vegetative life to the archangel, are natural, real, absolute creatures, made by God's own hand; and all their actions, motions, and qualities are natural. Doth not the fire burn a stick into ashes as natural as the air or water dissolves salt? And yet fire, when out of action, is invisible and impalpable; but where is the home or country of fire? Where, also, is the home or country of Knockers?"

If any one find the former question hard to answer, we think that he will find the latter harder: "credat, autem, [in]experto"; we have not tried either of them. In a country like ours, "of boundless mineral wealth," and of vastly greater than boundless speculation in minerals, the possession of one or two, if no more, such "very

good friends" would be convenient, and perhaps the recipe given here as "An excellent way to get a fayrie," which is as simple and safe as that given a little after "for to get a stomache," may do some one a good turn, if he will believe it.

For "manners and customs" what strange things these become—these abiding ways of behaving themselves, and of living and dealing with others—among a strong-building, staying folk of the English stock! If an American, sitting under his country's evening sky and counting stars, were to hear and see a man come and stop a little way off, and blow a blast or two or a snatch of notes upon a horn, and then go and do the same at another spot, all the time without a word said, he might take it all for a whim or freak, or a harmless gush of good spirits, with no more explanation needed than for a bird's flittings and bursts of song. In England he might witness such a thing, as in Ripon, done at 9 o'clock night after night at the market-cross and the mayor's door, and, if wise, might think it a survival of curfew; but if wise enough to find out, would learn that, as curfew, which was done away with 800 years ago, is still recalled by nightly bell among the people of English stock in the commonwealth of Massachusetts, so this custom overlives from the old way of watch-setting in Ripon; the watch is no longer set, but the little flourish of trumpet (and a little office and fee, too) lives on.

It strikes us strangely that when one-fourth part of this volume is given to the subject of Witchcraft, and when our own Salem in Massachusetts has so great a name and fame in that department of jurisprudence—fully, perhaps, one-quarter part of all on record—the only instance given from America is assigned to "Burlington in Pennsylvania." We must grant, however, and with much satisfaction, that the Burlingtonians managed the business of witchcraft in a much more satisfactory way than the Massachusetts Bay folk of a generation and a half earlier. The accused were weighed, one by one, against a large Bible, and every one outweighed it greatly; and when it came to the water trial, without which a poor, old, crippled woman cannot satisfactorily or rightfully be shown to be a witch or acquitted, a good natured crowd tumbled the accusers with the accused into the pond, where happily all floated. After an indiscriminate ducking, accused and accusers stood upon the same ground, moral and physical.

The strangest experience in witchcraft recorded here is that of King James Sixth and First, who was converted to a belief in that black art and afterward made into a law-giver against it in England by having "declared unto him by Agnis Thompson the very words which passed between the King's Majesty and his Queen at Upslo in Norway the first night of their marriage, and their answer each to other." On hearing this the wise King wondered greatly, and swore dreadfully, "that all the devils in hell could not have discovered the same; acknowledging the words to be most true." "The King's Majesty took great delight to be present at their examinations." By well-aimed questions he found out that "a christened cat," "with the chiefest parts of a dead man bound to each part of that cat, and the whole carried into the sea by all these witches sailing in their riddles or cieves, was the cause that the King's Majesty's ship had a contrary wind to the rest of the ships then being in his company," and "that his Majesty had never come safely from the sea if his faith had not prevailed."

The more than brutal cruelty of the trials of Doctor Fian (or whatever his name was) and others, their folly and their uncleanness, we leave in the book.

THE RELIGION OF THE EARLY SIKHS.

Sikhism in its Relation to Muhammadanism.
By Frederic Pincott, M.R.A.S. London:
W. H. Allen & Co. 1885.

SIKHISM, the prevailing creed of the inhabitants of the Panjāb, is one of those numerous religions which have had an illiterate origin, and which, naturally, have been accepted by but very few persons of any pretensions to lettered culture. Its author, Guru Nānak, a Hindu of the second, or martial caste, who was born in 1469, in the neighborhood of Lahore, could neither write nor read; and the same seems to have been the case with his three immediate primal successors. The four divided between them the Guruship of the new superstition during seventy-seven years, from 1504 till 1581. It was under the last of these, Rāmdās, who restored the noble tank known as Amritsar, and founded the city of the same name which adjoins it, that Sikhism began to take on a different character from that by which it had previously been distinguished. Rāmdās, unlike his quietistic predecessors, was far from insensible to the charms and the advantages of dignity and wealth, which he both aspired to and acquired. His son, Arjun, was still more secular in his proclivities, and, by reason of his ambition and aggressiveness, which speedily became marked traits of his co-religionists, met with an untimely end, either by execution or by suicide. To him is due the older collection of Sikh Scriptures, the 'Ādigranth,' or 'First Book,' containing the improvisations and other compositions of Nānak and divers other personages reputed for sanctity, among whom are two women. After Arjun came his son Har-govind; and the pontificate of Sikhism devolved similarly, each Guru designating his spiritual heir, until the tenth of them, Govind, refused to follow the precedent set by his forerunners, declaring that, after his death, the 'Ādigranth' was to be obeyed by the Sikhs, as their sole guide. To the compilation of Arjun he added a supplement, however; and this supplement is now held in paramount veneration by a sect—the largest of all the seven Sikh sects—the members of which take from him their more current denomination. From the time of Govind's death, in 1708, the community has lived on without a hierarchy, or, at least, without a hierarchy akin to those which it had then had for two hundred and four years.

The religion of the Sikhs, at least in its incipency, closely resembled that of the Indian reformer, Kabir. More avowedly, however, it was an experiment at devising a temper between Hinduism and Muhammadanism. It inculcated chariness of destroying animal life, held to metempsychosis, and retained other indications of its Neo-Brahmanical origin; but it also rejected caste and the worship of idols. Nānak, observing that many of the followers of the Arabian prophet were Sūfis, accentuated their radical harmony of belief with that of Hindus; both systems being, at bottom, monistic. Yet it is very doubtful whether, on more than one fundamental point, any Hindu convert to the Sikhism of Nānak ever symbolized with any Muhammadan convert to it. By the former, for example, the Supreme continued to be accounted as unconscious; whereas he must have been regarded, all along, by the latter, as conscious. The fact that his consciousness gradually came to be recognized is attributable, unquestionably, to the influence of Islām. In this important change of dogma we have one evidence, out of many, that Sikhism has not been, from first to last, by any means homogeneous. Its steady progress in unspirituality, exclusiveness, and bigotry is very noteworthy. And the Sikhs have not only altered in the matters of doctrine and practical prin-

ciples: beginning as a brotherhood wholly religious, they became transformed, in no long time, into a powerful nation.

Future blessedness is termed, by the Sikhs, *nirvāna*, a circumstance which led the late Dr. Ernest Trumpp, the translator of the 'Ādigranth,' to refer, in connection with it, to Buddhism. Mr. Pincott, going further, sees in it, by a somewhat bold historic leap, actual Buddhistic derivation. To this one cannot but demur; and the repetition of a few commonplaces, not unneeded in these days of crass and crazy theosophism, will evince that one is warranted in doing so. *Nirvāna*, besides being, as with the Buddhists so with their atheistic congeners, the Jains, the favorite vocable by which to denote ultimate bliss, is freely used by the Hindus likewise as a name for the condition of the emancipated. The Buddhists understand by it both an exalted state of sanctification, or Avhatship, and that in which this state is supposed to culminate eventually—not complete apathy and ataraxy, but utter annihilation. The latter acceptance of the word is that of the Jains also. On the other hand, *nirvāna* signifies, to the Hindu, absorption into the universal spirit, so called. This universal spirit is, it is true, represented as impersonal and incognitive, but yet as being something, an entity, though not one that is explicable comprehensibly. Into this the pious Hindu hopes to be at last merged; while the Buddhist, imitated by the Jaina, looks forward to final resolution into nothingness, to sheer extinction, as his happy portion, when he shall have been adequately purified from mundane soil. Eternal theocracy is thus the goal in the one case; in the other, absolute release from the weary weight and misery of existence. The notion of the future destiny of the righteous which is held by the Sikhs, if it is not that of their Hindu compatriots—and its being so is a position hardly contestable—may have been taken from the Jains, a body of religionists with whom they have always been in contact, but they are most certainly not indebted for it, at any rate at first hand, to the Buddhists. But, to begin with, it behooves to ascertain what precisely that notion is. As likely as not, it seems, no Sikh as yet has defined it with sufficient clearness to authorize any perfectly positive conclusion with respect to its distinctive character. Moreover, the Sikhs are not, and never have been, atheists; and what theist would desire to be cut off for everlastingly from his Supreme, be that Supreme the sleeping Brahma or what he may?

It is an interesting monograph that Mr. Pincott has produced; and he has worked out his thesis, one which had been undeservedly slighted, with success. Most of the accounts of Sikhism hitherto published have been based on insufficient data, and betray superficial research. To these the account which he has drawn up stands, as far as it goes, in advantageous contrast. Among Panjābi scholars, of whom there is but a meagre group, he is one of the very few who have had recourse to the fountain-head for materials towards delineating the religion of Nānak. That he has scrutinized with critical care the documents bearing on his subject is at once obvious. In the text itself of the 'Ādigranth' he has, for instance, indisputably restored in one place the genuine reading, to the displacement of the accredited lection, apparently no word at all, with which Dr. Trumpp was too easily contented.

A Naturalist's Wanderings in the Eastern Archipelago: a Narrative of Travel and Exploration from 1878 to 1883. By Henry O. Forbes. xx, 536 pp., 8vo. Maps and illustrations. Harpers. 1885.

THIS volume, the author states in his preface, is essentially a transcript of what he thinks the

more interesting of his field notes, for which he disavows any attempt at literary elegance, and which, in so far as they relate to common ground, he would have regarded in the light of an addendum to Wallace's 'Malay Archipelago.' Part of his track was over new fields, and here, as especially in Timor, he trusts new and interesting matter has been gathered for the reader. We think that, for his own sake, Mr. Forbes would have wisely sought a better finish for his story of adventure, or at least eliminated the occasional outcroppings of British slang; and it is to be regretted that the illustrations are of the cheapest character, often so smudgy as to be nearly unintelligible. Having eased our conscience on these two points, we can take a greater satisfaction in calling attention to some of the more interesting revelations of life in the tropics contained in his modest and straightforward narrative.

After his arrival at Batavia, Mr. Forbes's first excursion was to the Keeling Atoll, a coral island, which lies in the open sea about six hundred miles southwest from Sunda Strait and the famous Krakatoa Volcano. It is a ring of reef and dry land about eight miles in diameter, nearly circular, with one or two off-lying islets. This was settled by a Captain Ross, of the British navy, in 1827, and, after many vicissitudes, his descendants still hold paternal sway. The chapters relating to the past and present history of the group are extremely interesting, and offer as good an argument as could be furnished to the advocates of a benevolent despotism as a form of government. Perhaps most of us at times have indulged in dreams of life on some fair coral island in the warm bosom of the tropic seas. The ideal peace of such seclusion is grateful to the mind worn by the cares and anxieties of civic activity. Mr. Forbes reveals the peace and beauty, but also shows us the reverse of the tapestry. Early difficulties were due to the desperate character of the Java coolies employed as laborers, necessitating a military watch and ward by the Europeans night and day for years. Leaving this source of care, now remedied, out of question, in 1862 a cyclone in a few hours wrecked the homes and property of the islanders. Replacing the chain-gang men with a better class, the owner of the island instituted other reforms, and introduced a steam-mill, lathes, and machinery. "Every Cocos man has had, beside performing his ordinary duties of gathering nuts and preparing oil, to learn to work in brass, iron, and wood. Every Cocos girl has had her term of apprenticeship to spend in Mrs. Ross's house, in learning, under her direction, sewing, cooking, and every housewifely duty as practised in European homes" (p. 18).

In January, 1876, another terrible cyclone broke upon the island. Every house or building was destroyed, every green leaf stripped away, the groves half ruined, and huge blocks of coral-conglomerate cast in a great wall yards inland all along the shore. The inhabitants saved themselves only by lying in hollows of the ground. About thirty-six hours later, a black stream of water, smelling of sulphuretted hydrogen, welled up from the bottom of the sea, and continued for nearly two weeks, at the end of which time, over half the area of the atoll, every fish, coral, and marine animal was killed. Three weeks of hard work were spent burying the dead fish cast on the beach, to avoid a pestilence. In six months, however, the trees and shrubs remaining were green again, and at the time of Mr. Forbes's visit the little community were recovering from this disaster, and seemed the ideal of a peaceful and happy colony. Cordial relations exist between the proprietors and their servitors. A younger brother, well qualified, teaches the children. All join in the funeral ceremonies on the

occasion of a death. That perfection should exist in all their relations is not to be expected, but, according to Mr. Forbes, a finer and more upright community, a simpler and more guileless people, can hardly be conceived of.

Darwin visited these islands in 1836, and the comparison between their flora and fauna as then described by him and as now existing is very interesting. Among other facts, the growth of coral would seem to be much more rapid than naturalists generally suppose. Heads twelve inches in diameter and more than six inches high were known to have grown in less than nine months. A giant clam-shell (*Tridacna*) had grown to twelve inches long and thirteen broad in three years. The mammals of the group are all introduced. On several occasions flying foxes (*Pteropus*) have arrived at the group, but too worn out to live. The fact that they should be able to reach it at all, from the land not less than four hundred miles distant, seems extraordinary. The Norway rat has become the chief pest; pigs, deer, and sheep seem to do well, and the atoll is perfectly salubrious.

A succeeding portion of the book is devoted to Java. A curious plant is described, the natural corky hollows of whose tuberous root afford a home for colonies of stinging ants. Formerly it was thought that the tuber was a sort of gall due to the injury caused by the ants, and that the latter were in some way necessary to the plant; but Mr. Forbes has proved this to be an error. He also contributes some valuable testimony which goes to show that self-fertilization is not so exceptional among orchids as has been supposed—a fact of real importance in botany.

A third part is devoted to Sumatra, where the author had varied and interesting experiences. His ethnological notes seem particularly valuable and clear, though not profound. He notes and roughly figures some singular prehistoric carved stone images found in the forest, strongly resembling the *Caragiantesca* of Yucatan, and, though of unknown origin, regarded with awe by the natives. He had a remarkable experience in a forest camp. Everything seemed phosphorescent. "The stem of every tree blinked with a pale greenish-white light, which undulated also across the surface of the ground like moonlight coming and going behind clouds—from a minute thread-like fungus, invisible in the daytime to the unassisted eye. Thick, dumpy mushrooms displayed a clear, sharp dome of light, whose intensity never varied. . . . Long phosphorescent caterpillars and centipedes crawled out of every corner, leaving a trail of light behind them," while fireflies darted about like shooting stars. A singular spider was collected here, and also in Java, with a habit of spinning a patch of web on a leaf which, together with the creature itself, almost exactly simulates in form and color the droppings of a bird. Certain butterflies which have the habit of alighting on such excreta are thus enticed to their ruin. Of his return voyage of a month, on a bamboo raft, the author speaks with great enthusiasm.

In Java Mr. Forbes was joined by his wife, who became the companion of his explorations. These afterward extended to Timor-Laut, Buru, and Timor proper. Of the fatigues, cruel fevers, alarms of war, losses of hard-won collections by fire, and tribulations of various sorts, there is more than enough. The spirit of adventure and scientific devotion overbore to the travellers, at least in reminiscence, all their trials, and the harvest reaped by them was rich. From most readers, a hearty thanksgiving for the blessings of the temperate zone will involuntarily arise. Not the least surprising to those whose experience of the tropics has been limited, will be the account of the hardships, and especially the not infrequent famine, to which dwellers in these

spicy islands are, it appears, subjected. Rich as are the developments of animated nature in these regions, "where every prospect pleases," the plutonic forces beneath one's feet, the scourge of fever, insects and reptiles, and the ever-possible typhoon, form an *ensemble* which does not contrast too favorably with the quiet meadows of the temperate or even the mossy lowlands of the arctic zone.

George Eliot's Poetry, and Other Studies. By Rose Elizabeth Cleveland. Funk & Wagnalls. 1885.

THIS volume derives an adventitious interest from the position of its authoress as mistress of the White House; but, although it may win only the ephemeral renown which flickers out in the dilettante's catalogue of "Books by Royal and Noble Authors," it has a kind of worth that sets it apart from the books whose only excuse for being is their parentage—books which begin and end with a title-page. It is preferable to regard these essays and studies as the careful work, to parody a phrase, of a plain woman of the people; her careful, best mental work, but not originally intended for a larger audience than her circle of neighborhood friends. Too much prominence is given to them, they are set in too strong a light, when put forward as more than this—for example, as being a national book. Yet when, in accordance with this view, we do disregard the adventitious interest of the authorship, the work refuses to lose its representative and illustrative characteristics; it remains an extraordinary book for an ordinary woman to have written—a woman who is not a genius, nor even gifted with high talents, but distinguished among her sex merely by those qualities which in the case of a man earn for him the title of "the plain man of the people." A "plain man of the people" is by no means an average man; and this is not the book of an average woman. In the qualities of mind, in the practical ethics and ideal of womanly and manly character it displays, one sees, as at the domestic hearth of the republic, the faith, hope, and love in the habit and practice of which the children are being nursed in thousands of enlightened humble homes; and in the literary style, in the intellectual interests and attainments exhibited, one sees sign and proof of the good of "female education" among us, for, as has been indicated, the authoress is not a "born writer"—her style and substance are the product of schools.

Such are some of the representative and illustrative characteristics which the curious and reflective American might discover in these essays. Examined as to their intrinsic worth, they would vary in value according as they are assayed for silver or gold. The influence of Emerson is paramount in style throughout, and in the matter of the moral essays the turn of his hand is wonderfully caught: there are sentences he might have written. This is not out of any base or conscious imitation, but because the authoress's mind is permeated and charged with Emerson's influence. The pith is sometimes less exquisite, has a more acrid and country raciness than he would have approved, and the rhetoric is often too tinsel-like and artificial; but sense and clarity of mind and word are conspicuous. There is no critical power, let us be ready to confess; and in the historical studies which make up the latter half of the book there is nothing not in common standard works, so far as fact is concerned; neither is there any fine glow or illuminating imagination in the setting forth of the fact. The real power, the line of strength in all these essays, is in their moral apprehension, their intuitive certainty in the region of character, duty, and human association, and in particular in their sense of the simplicity

of the elements of virtue. We may dissent from the positions—we may be too exquisite to agree here, too fond of scholarly exactness to be content there—but from the spirit we never dissent. It is the spirit in which the best of our stock has been bred.

Applied Mechanics: An Elementary General Introduction to the Theory of Structures and Machines. With Diagrams, Illustrations, and Examples. By J. H. Cottrell, F.R.S. Macmillan & Co.

THIS handsomely printed octavo volume of nearly 600 pages consists of a series of lectures on mechanics delivered by the author in the Royal Naval College at Greenwich. The lectures, however, have not been given to the press until the experience of several years has made them assume a tolerably permanent form. They have, moreover, been carefully edited, and are now presented in the shape of a systematic treatise on Applied Mechanics, from which the form of the lecture has disappeared. The general subject is divided into five principal parts: I, The Statics of Structures; II, The Kinematics of Machines; III, The Dynamics of Machines; IV, The Stiffness and Strength of Materials; and V, The Transmission and Conversion of Energy by Fluids. About equal space is given to each of these subjects, excepting the part on the Strength of Materials, which is one-half larger than any other division of the volume.

The book has evidently been prepared with much care, and treats of the subjects considered in a manner more simple and more easily understood by a man of only ordinary education than books of this class usually do. It, however, bears evidence throughout of being exactly what it is—a text-book for a particular class, to be used by that class in studying the subjects which are lectured on by the instructor who wrote the book. Like many other similar books, it has obviously been written by one whose experience has been in the study rather than on public works, and while it covers nearly every subject on which the engineer requires theoretical learning, it shows only a moderate familiarity with the particular cases which occur most frequently in practice. It is not sufficiently condensed for a mathematical treatise on the subjects which it covers, nor sufficiently full of practical examples to be useful as a handbook. The examples, in fact, are not the modern ones which an engineer in the actual practice of his profession will frequently have occasion to refer to, but rather a collection of well-known examples, many of them virtually out of use, which would serve in a lecture to illustrate to a class the practical application of the subject which has been considered theoretically, and to awaken the interest of the hearer by suggestions which may perhaps be largely amplified in the oral portions of the instruction.

As a text-book under circumstances similar to those for which it has been prepared, it may prove very valuable, but the chances are that if a case of this kind is found, the instructor who might use it would be likely to prefer to prepare a text-book of his own. As a manual or reference book, there are others which are more convenient.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Afterom, G. *Slaken Threads. A Detective Story.* Boston: Cupples, Upham & Co. \$1.25.
Besant, Walter. *Uncle Jack, and Other Stories.* Harper's Handy Series. 25 cents.
Bicknell, E. P. *A Study of the Singing of Our Birds.* Boston: Estes & Lauriat.
Child's Health Primer for Primary Classes. With Special Reference to the Effects of Alcoholic Drinks, etc. A. S. Barnes & Co.
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Premiums on Policies not marked off 1st January, 1884.....	1,447,756 70
Total Marine Premiums.....	\$5,405,786 14

Premiums marked off from 1st January, 1884, to 31st December, 1884.....	\$4,066,271 04
Losses paid during the same period.....	\$2,109,019 20

Returns of Premiums and Expenses.....	\$787,789 40
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The Company has the following Assets, viz.:

United States and State of New York Stock, City, Bank and other Stocks.....	\$2,776,685 00
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Cash in Bank.....	261,544 65
Amount.....	\$12,938,289 38

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Being convinced that the interests of the New York Central and Hudson River Railroad Company and of the bondholders of the New York, West Shore and Buffalo Railway Company would be best promoted by the former company securing a lease of the railroad of the latter company and working such railroad in harmony with its own system, we opened negotiations to secure this result.

These negotiations have reached a point at which we are prepared to lay the following proposal before the bondholders of the West Shore Company in order that each one of them who may now so elect shall have equal opportunity to share with us the benefit of our contract hereinafter mentioned, and with the view also of promoting unanimity and a speedy termination of pending difficulties.

The New York Central and Hudson River Railroad Company has executed a contract with us agreeing upon a reorganization of the New York, West Shore and Buffalo Railway Company, to take possession of the property of the reorganized company, under a lease, and to guarantee the principal and interest of the bonds herein after mentioned, which are to be secured by mortgage upon that property.

The conditions of the contract are as follows:

FIRST—That the securities to be issued by the reorganized company shall be limited to: \$50,000,000
Four per cent. Mortgage Bonds, and 10,000,000
Capital Stock, the bonds to be dated Jan. 1, 1886, and to mature at the expiration of the lease, say in 475 years, or upon default in payment of interest for two consecutive years.

SECOND—That of the Mortgage Bonds, \$25,000,000 shall be offered in exchange for the 50,000,000 First Mortgage Bonds of the present company, with past due coupons attached—that is to say, \$1,000 of the new guaranteed bonds for \$2,000 of the old.

THIRD—That the remaining \$25,000,000, except such amount as may be necessary for reorganization, shall not be issued except at the request of the New York Central and Hudson River Railroad Company, to provide for prior liens, necessary terminals, and such other property and for such other purposes as the Directors of the New York Central and Hudson River Railroad Company may from time to time think necessary for the security, development, and operation of the property leased.

FOURTH—That the capital stock of the reorganized company shall be surrendered to the New York Central and Hudson River Railroad Company as a consideration for its lease and guarantee.

FIFTH—That the leased property shall be delivered prior to Jan. 1, 1886.

We therefore offer to the first mortgage bondholders of the West Shore Company the opportunity to avail themselves of our agreement with the New York Central and Hudson River Railroad Company, upon the following conditions:

FIRST—That their bonds shall be deposited with us, with the agreement hereto attached duly executed by the depositors.

SECOND—That at least a majority of the whole issue shall be deposited.

Pending the deposit of such majority, temporary receipts will be given for the bonds. After a majority shall have been secured, temporary receipts will be exchanged for engraved receipts, negotiable in form, countersigned by the Union Trust Company, in whose custody the bonds will remain until required by us for purposes of reorganization.

In case a majority shall not be secured and a reorganization perfected within the time required under the contract with the New York Central and Hudson River Railroad Company, the bonds will be returned free of expense upon surrender of the receipts duly assigned.

It is right that we should add that a very large proportion of the bonds required have already assented to the proposed plan. Upon receiving the assent of a majority in amount of the present West Shore Bonds, immediate steps will be taken which, we are advised, will secure prompt reorganization and prevent further depreciation and waste of the property.

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